

**THE ROLE AND STATUS OF JOURNALISTS  
IN SINDH PROVINCE, PAKISTAN**

**Thesis Submitted for the Degree of**

**Doctor of Philosophy**

**at the University of Leicester**

**By**

**Bashir Ahmed Memon**

**Department of Media and Communication**

**University of Leicester**

**July, 2011**

## **ABSTRACT**

### **The Role and Status of Journalists in Sindh province, Pakistan**

**By**

**Bashir Ahmed Memon**

This study provides a demographic and occupational profile of the Sindh journalists and examines their employment conditions, remuneration level, aims and aspirations, and their views on media freedom, professional autonomy and the role of the media. The study also highlights the limitations and hardships which Sindh journalists encounter in performing their professional responsibilities. The study employed two research methodologies – survey and focus groups. 576 working journalists, located in 22 District Press Clubs in Sindh, completed questionnaires. The focus groups were conducted in six purposively selected districts, recruiting on average five participants in each group.

The study found that Sindh journalists typically are male, young, ethnically Sindhi and Muslims. About their financial conditions, mostly, they are unpaid and underpaid; they are well-educated, employed by private media, and have more than five years job seniority. Although they do not feel their jobs are secure, however they are satisfied and committed, professionally. Moreover, they consider that the media should perform the roles of ‘information analysis and public advocacy’, ‘national development’ and ‘dissemination of political awareness’. Ideologically they are liberal; and in context of professionalism they are press club members; to keep abreast of current events and news they first read newspapers and then watch television. They deny that the media in Pakistan are completely free and that journalists have complete professional autonomy. The study also finds that the attitude of the state towards the media and journalists correlates positively to the political system in Pakistan – in times of martial law treated with more severity, under democratic governments with less. Both neither government nor the press clubs have any comprehensive plan for the professional development of Sindh journalists. Factionalism is a problem, and much of this is due to conspiracies by media organisations/owners, government functionaries and vested interests of the journalists.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research endeavour owes a lot to many friends whose help in various forms; advice, encouragement, data collection and proofreading were invaluable from the beginning to the successful completion of this PhD thesis. To begin with I am very grateful to my supervisor, Roger Dickinson whose kind attitude and appropriate guidance catapulted this research study to the doorstep of success. Additionally, I also found academic and support staff of the Department of Media and Communication at University of Leicester very helpful during the whole period of my study. Therefore, I am very appreciative of them as well.

Moreover, I appreciate Jyotika Ramaprasad Associate Professor in the School of Journalism, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale who provided the questionnaires of her survey studies conducted about journalists in Nepal and Bangladesh. I am thankful to my journalist friends: Suhail Sangi, Noor Muhammad Samejo, Abdullah Sarohi, Sarang Chandio, Manzoor Chandio, Irshaad Junejo and District Information Officers: Zafar Ali Mangi, Ghulam Abbas Goraho and Ghulam Raza Khoso and many other elected representatives of District Press Clubs in Sindh, all of whom made it easier for me to visit personally and collect data from different and far-flung district press clubs of Sindh. Some of these friends also helped me arrange and organise focus group discussions in six different districts of Sindh. In the data collection process I also owe great thanks to those journalist friends who served as research assistants to gather survey data from media outlets in District Karachi and Hyderabad; and Mr Muzamil Chaudhry who helped me to learn some statistical concepts. I will also never forget the help of my friends at Leicester Mr. John Bird, Terese Bird and Dr. Elizabeth Flanagan who helped with proofreading the manuscript. Also great thanks to Mr. Gurnam Singh and Julia Singh whose kind companionship was a source of solace, particularly in situations when being away from family and staying in Leicester, UK, sometimes I felt loneliness.

Finally, I am deeply indebted to my family, particularly my sons Inshaal, Hamza, Saad, my wife and parents who all suffered my absence genuinely.

## DEDICATION

This research endeavour is dedicated to all Sindh journalists – from Karachi to Kashmore – who, despite all odds, have been working as agents of social change against the status quo of feudalism and other all types of social sicknesses prevailing in Sindh province, Pakistan.

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background of the Study

Deuze calls survey studies of journalism ‘an international tradition’ (Deuze, 2002, p. 1). Surveys about journalists were undertaken during the 20<sup>th</sup> century in Germany and the US. However, it was in the 1970s that such studies ‘became widely accepted among scholars internationally’ (Weischenberg and Scholl, 1998: 37) cited in (Deuze, 2002, p. 1). According to Deuze, some of the most significant of these studies of journalists were those conducted by Johnstone et. al (1976) in the US; Kepplinger (1979) in Germany; and Tunstall (1970) in Great Britain. These focused on journalists’ personal characteristics such as their educational, ethnic, or religious background, the division of labour within news organisations, the way journalists perceived their role in society, and their perception of the threat posed by increased media concentration. (ibid). Deuze notes that the first national survey on journalists was undertaken in the US by Johnstone, Slawski and Bowman in 1971; it was then published in book form in 1976 (2002, p. 1).

According to Johnstone et al. sociological studies about the mass media commonly focus on three main issues: the process by which the media transmit information to society, the impact of the diffusion of information on society, and the business of media—the media organisations themselves and their ‘functionaries as representatives of an occupational group.’ (Johnstone, Slawski, & Bowman, 1976, p. 1). The authors claim to have carried out the first systematic study of the social characteristics of journalists. Their study included television news reporters (on and off-camera), newspaper reporters and columnists, wire-service reporters, editorial writers, and reporters from local newspapers. (ibid). Their study sought to ‘present a representative overview of the nature of newsmen and newswork’ in America (Johnstone et al., 1976, p. ix) and examined the American journalist from every angle: his (or her) social origins, patterns of training and recruitment, career histories and job aspirations, division of labour within news-media, professional behaviour and values, working conditions, financial rewards, and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (ibid, p. 5). What was novel about this study, according to the authors, was that except for a few studies dealing with the ‘characteristics of individual journalists’ there were no previous studies of members of the profession as a whole. (ibid, p. 2).

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The other systematic study of American journalists was conducted by Weaver and Wilhoit (1986), and examined the changing nature of the role of the journalist, the background and education of members of the profession, their attitudes, beliefs, and values; and the effects of new technology on journalists' work (David H. Weaver & Wilhoit, 1986, p. vi). Weaver and Wilhoit compared their findings with those of Johnstone et al. who were all sociologists (p. ibid). Despite great similarity in the general pattern of both the above mentioned studies, there was one sharp contrast between their goals. As Johnstone et al. argued 'Our goal is sociological inquiry, not social criticism' (Johnstone et al., 1976, p. vii); in contrast Weaver and Wilhoit maintained that though their goal was 'systematic inquiry', they did not claim to approach their study as disinterested academics; rather, they sought to find ways to make 'journalistic careers more fulfilling and rewarding' (1986, p. vi).

Subsequently Weaver and Wilhoit undertook two follow-up survey studies '*The American Journalist in the 1990s*' in 1992, and '*The American Journalist in the 21<sup>st</sup> century: U.S. news people at the dawn of a new millennium*' in 2002, both patterned on the 1971 study of Johnstone et al.; however the 2002 study included internet journalists and included more open-ended comments about why respondents chose journalism as a profession, their job satisfaction, journalistic freedom, performance of news organisations. (D. H. Weaver, Beam, Brownlee, Voakes, & Wilhoit, 2007, pp. vii-viii).

### **Comparative research in the field of journalism**

Hanitzsch observes that similarities exist between the professional routines, editorial procedures, and socialization processes of news professionals in every country; at the same time the professional views and practices of journalists in different countries are influenced by the 'national media system' of which they are a part, which results in some differences (Hanitzsch, 2009, p. 413). Therefore, the attempt to explore such differences and similarities in journalistic culture has become an interesting sphere in the field of journalism studies, and researchers in this field follow a comparative perspective (ibid). Further regarding comparative research Hanitzsch notes (Kohn, 1989) that comparative studies have become necessary for developing the generalizability of theories and findings, and that they also test the interpretations of researchers against cross-cultural differences (Hanitzsch, 2009). Moreover, Hanitzsch (2009) adds that comparative research in the field of journalism is divisible into four main paradigms: (1) *The US and the rest*: This paradigm has been dominant in communication and media

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studies from the 1950s to the 1960s. Jack McLeod has been dubbed the founder of comparative journalism research; he constructed the scale to assess journalistic professionalism which is used in the US and Latin American. (2) *The North and the South*: This period was fundamentally formed by political processes that happened within UNESCO and the European Community. During the 1970s, the unbalanced communication flow between the industrialized North and developing South created a conflict 'on the need for a New World Information and Communication Order'. And that gave rise to a study of attitudes toward the media in 29 different nations which was then replicated in the 1990s on a sample of 38 countries, and the studies, to date, are integrated research ventures. (3) *The West and the West*: This model had prevalence during the mid 1980s and late 1990s. It was pushed by European scholarship and also symbolised the launch of methodologically highly advanced comparative research. Journalists and newsrooms were studied in Germany and the UK by (Kocher 1986) and (Esser 1998); histories of journalism in France, Great Britain and the US were compared by (Chalaby (1996). Online journalists in Germany and United States were compared by Quandt, Löffelholz, Weaver, Hanitzsch, & Altmeyden (1996). (4) *The West and the Global*: according to this paradigm researchers want to assess the universal and the specific in journalistic cultures around the globe. One of the beginning studies within this paradigm was Golding and Elliott's (1979) analysis of broadcasting organisations in Sweden, Ireland, and Nigeria (Hanitzsch, 2009, pp. 414-416).

Hanitzsch has categorized comparative research conducted in the field of journalism into four main registers: Professionalism and Professionalization, News Decisions, Historical Studies, and Global Journalists (See Hanitzsch, 2009). According to Hanitzsch one of the key sources of journalism comparative research till now is *The Global Journalist*, a compilation by David Weaver (1986). The main argument behind this work is that in spite of social and cultural differences, there is some relationship between the background and ideas of journalists everywhere and what they report and how they report it (Hanitzsch, 2009, p. 419). The compilation included studies of 20,280 journalists in 21 countries, conducted from 1986 in Algeria to 1996 in Canada. Hanitzsch sees this study as still the most comprehensive compilation of results of studies of news people in the world and a key reference for comparative journalism researchers (Hanitzsch, 2009).



### **1.2 Justification for the Study**

#### **Background**

This study deals with journalism in Pakistan, particularly focusing on the sociological portrait of Pakistani news professionals, their attitudes and beliefs. The study was conducted at a time when the private broadcast media had seen very rapid development (within a period of a decade and half) in Pakistan; and against the backdrop of the resignation of General Pervaiz Musharf as President of the country. Moreover, it should be noted that one of the fundamental and sole purposes of conducting this research was to pay scholarly attention to the journalistic community of Sindh, and as it were, “put them under the microscope” as media researchers and scholars across the world also closely examine the professional journalists in their own countries. Added to this it was considered that the world community of journalists would also be able to observe and confirm what are the issues and problems of Sindh journalists, and their strengths and weaknesses compared with their counterparts and colleagues across the globe. The study had best be considered as an exploratory one and a foundation for future research, like those undertaken already in the different regions of the world. Perhaps in the future this study will stir up debate and discussion among journalism and media scholars and precipitate further and more in-depth studies of Pakistani journalists.

This study has not been conducted with the intention to praise or criticize the professional attitudes and beliefs of the Sindh journalists regarding their professional aptitude. Rather their collective socio-economic, educational and attitudinal profiles, responses and views about their profession will be compared, where ever appropriate and possible, with other such journalistic studies undertaken in various developing and developed countries of the world. For the purposes of this study a structured survey questionnaire was designed, for focus group discussions (a supplementary method discussed in detail in the research methods section).six questions agenda was set. The sole purpose of conducting focus group discussions was to discuss and understand some relevant journalistic issues at a deeper level, (which were not possible through a quantitative method).

#### **Media-saturated World and Space to Journalists in Media research**

The increasing globalization of mass media and the worldwide spread of the practices and ideologies of the western world, specifically the American communication industry, have been witnessed, in particular, during the last two decades (Gurevitch and Blumler,

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1990; Shah, 1999) cited in Mwesige (2004, p. 307). This all has become possible because ‘technology has brought new channels of public communication’(Chaffee & Kanihan, 1997, pp., p.421), therefore, as a result ‘We now live in a media-saturated environment’ (Arthur Asa Berger, 2007, pp., p.26). The development of the media as a global phenomenon is also traceable if we consider the view that ‘news and information about public affairs are more available now than ever before’ (Simon & Merrill, 1997, pp., p. 307). From such a level of saturation and the ever-increasing growth of the media, therefore, it is assumed that in today’s world, ‘mass media has been a main source of information for the majority of people, and it can also set an agenda on public issues which the leaders and public deem as significant’,(Mwesige, 2004, pp., p. 70).

Mwesige further observes that globalization has brought much convergence in media systems worldwide and a ‘lot has been written about the media content and audiences in the new global environment’ (2004, pp. 69-70). In the context of research on media it has been pointed out long ago that media studies during the past few decades have had more focus on message content i.e. characteristics of news, propaganda and popular culture. In addition the other areas where media research has been abundantly conducted are: how information diffuses, the impact of media on politics and the effects of television on children or uses and gratifications which audiences get from the media (Johnstone et al., 1976, pp., p. 1). However, in contrast ‘very little has been done to compare the people who work in journalism in developing countries..... to their counterparts in developed countries’, (Mwesige, 2004, pp. 69-70). On the other side rather it has been stated that ‘the impetus coming from new technologies pushes scholars (even) to reconsider the definitions of journalist’ (Joseph, 2005, p. 86).

### **Why study journalists?**

Riddell (1997) puts journalists in three categories. First, academics; not university researchers or lecturers, but cultured, cultivated journalists with an interest in literature and foreign affairs, whose work is informing and reforming society. Second, technicians, those who are the specialists in finance, sport, racing, fashion, drama, architecture, music, markets, law medicine, gardening, photography, and motoring etc. Thirdly, popularists, those who have the gift of selection and understand what will interest the general public (1997, pp. 112-113).

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Various scholars and academics have commented on the importance of studying the working conditions and psychology of journalists. Some have pinned high hopes on such journalistic studies, while others have cast a critical eye on them. As an example of the former, Stead says, in words which provide a basis for all studies of journalists, ‘the future of journalism depends upon the journalists’ (Stead, 1997, p. 50); and as Williams says, ‘the guardianship of journalistic values rests primarily with the journalist’ (Williams, 1997, p. 167). However, it should not be ignored that, as Williams points out ‘a journalist has commitments to the commercial interests of those who employ him, (Williams, 1997, p. 186). In addition, Tomalin adds that ‘journalists are always better at describing than doing, at telling others what is wrong than in practicing what we preach’ (1997, p. 176).

Riddell further observes that newspapers live by selling news and views, therefore, journalism is a commercial business, and this fact colours the psyche of the journalist. Indeed, the attitude of the public to the press has entirely changed and journalists are not prepared to be treated as inferiors (Riddell, 1997, pp. 110-111). Moreover, journalists are human and have their favourites, because, like other people journalists are sentimental about their own environment (Riddell, 1997, p. 111). Stead (1997) further shares his view that ‘the ideal of the journalist should be to be universally accessible- to know everyone and to hear everything’ (Stead, 1997, p. 52). According to Williams the influence of a newspaper on its readers derives not only from its expressed opinions but from its daily selection of news, the honesty of its reporting, the weight of its headlines, and the values it emphasizes in its features (1997, p. 168).

Moreover, Mwesige says that media can fulfil the ‘noble role’ of calling the state to accountability and being the watchdog of society if they (journalists) are credible and can provide reliable information about the state and its socio-political environment. However, if journalists do not develop the knowledge, skill and freedom necessary to investigate all public matters, they (media) cannot rise to the challenges of democratic participation and sustainability. Therefore, it is necessary to have knowledge of the people who work in journalism particularly in such countries where the democratization process is weak (2004, p. 70). Mwesige continues that the role of journalism and the media cannot be adequately appreciated unless we have an understanding of the people who work in this significant institution which has been called the fourth estate (2004, p. 71).

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According to De Burgh journalists are also supposed to be ‘the only guarantors of truth-telling and human rights’ (De Burgh, 2003, p. 110). Therefore, ‘we want our journalists to be thoroughly competent and responsible’ (Raudsepp, 1989, p. 1). And it is also very relevant to put here that ‘any effort to “make journalists” better, we believe, must begin with a commitment to prepare journalists to talk openly and eloquently about what they do and why they do it’ (Glasser & Marken, 2005, pp. 264-265) because ‘editors and reporters are the ones who decide what is important for the world to know’ (Willis, 2009, p. 13). It is also pointed out that while taking such decisions it is important for the world to know they (journalists) are ‘both reflecting and affecting deep-rooted structures of feeling’ (McNair, 1998, p. 7). Weaver also adds that the backgrounds and ideas of journalists have some relationship to what is reported (and how it is covered) in the various news media around the world, and that news coverage matters in terms of world public opinion and policies (1998b, p. 456).

In this way the above discussion about the saturation of the media, its role as watchdog of society, and the significance of studying journalists provides justification for this research project to study Sindh journalists. However, it is significant to note that this study, for the most part, has been modelled on the aforementioned pioneering studies of Johnstone et al. (1976) and Weaver and Wilhoit (1986). Still there may be many more other reasons for studying journalists. For instance, ‘we should remember that journalists are not working in a vacuum’ (Soffer, 2009, p. 488). Mistakes and misconduct committed by them are reminders that journalists are social actors whose behaviour does not always conform to the professional codes (Dickinson, 2007, p. 2). Therefore, overall it becomes necessary to conduct scholarly research and make them accountable.

In addition, to know the views and perceptions of news workers about their profession and socio-economic status and conditions also becomes necessary particularly because they are ‘prominently involved in the formation of social consciousness in the name of public’ (Adam, 2001b, p. 316), and the news selection is dependent on their individual idiosyncrasies says White (1950) cited in Dickinson (2007, p. 5). Schudson also adds that ‘leaders from various sectors of society who disagree on almost everything else agree that journalists are the most powerful, dangerous, and irresponsible group in the country’ (2003, p. 16). Moreover, Machin & Niblock perceive that ‘the role of the journalist is a seeker of truth, the eyes and ears of

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people' (2006, p. 4), however 'according to many studies the role of journalist as eyes and ears of the public is questionable' conclude (Machin & Niblock, 2006, p. 31).

Another justification for studying Sindh journalists is that one of the purposes of journalistic studies is to compare their findings with those of similar studies, because we can 'understand a given system by comparing it with others' (McLeod, Blumler, Berger, & Chaffee, 1987, p. 315). Therefore, Josephi (2005, p. 576) considers that these 'comparative studies, which have come a long way since first advocated by Blumler and Gurevitch (Blumler and Gurevitch, 1990, 1995; Esser, 2004), begin to have a deeper impact'. She (Josephi, 2005) adds that in journalism studies, no other book has been as influential as Siebert et al.'s (1956) *Four Theories of the Press*. However, the book has been incisively criticized by Nerone and others, pointing out that the *Four Theories* 'does not offer four theories: it offers one theory with four examples (Nerone, 1995:18)'. Therefore, when, as Josephi (2005) points out, there are an insufficient number of theories, comparative studies are therefore the only way to arrive at a new media and journalism theory as Hallin & Mancini (2004) suggest.

Finally, with regard to the importance of journalistic survey studies, Ramaprasad & Rahman state that the tradition of journalistic surveys around the world (Weaver, 1998) provides knowledge regarding international media and their practitioners. Such studies are, specifically, relevant in the current period of globalization, where media and messages flow across borders easily and continuously, and the effects on media policy and practice are also cross-national (2006, p. 148).

This study can also be justified in other ways. For instance, Mwesige says that 'national portraits of journalists are important because journalism is deemed to be a central influence on society' (Mwesige, 2004, p. 70). However, until now to the best knowledge of this researcher no such comprehensive, systematic and scientific survey research at this scale has been found or conducted particularly about Sindh journalists. In this way this research effort is a pioneering one and the results would hopefully establish baseline data regarding Sindh journalists and more probably would upgrade the research profile of Pakistan at international level in the field of media studies and hopefully the future researchers may find it useful as a stepping stone for their own research about media studies, journalism studies and journalists in Pakistan.

The survey questionnaire of this study was structured on the basis of previously used questionnaires, particularly the ones adopted by Ramaprasad (2003) in their study of Tanzanian journalists, Ramaprasad & Rahman (2006) in their survey of Bangladeshi

journalists, Ramaprasad & Kelly (2003) in their study of Nepalese journalists, and Weaver and Wilhoit (1986) in their study of American journalists. In most cases, the questions are similar in survey studies of Tanzanian, Bangladeshi, Nepalese and American journalists. However to design a questionnaire more suited to Sindh journalists (Sindh is a developing province of Pakistan), some questions were deleted, altered and modified; because, Herscovitz indicates that ‘the mere replication of survey instruments in cross-national studies faces cultural and technical constraints that prevent generalizations’ (Herscovitz, 2005, p. 107). And some new questions were also incorporated, specifically, taking into consideration the research questions of this study and different contexts in which the journalism is practiced in Sindh.

### **1.3 Statement of research objectives**

This study of Sindh journalists seeks to provide an overview of their working conditions, aims and aspirations, and to examine their perceptions concerning the role of the news media. In addition, the study aims to improve understanding of the limitations and hardships which Sindh journalists encounter. The chief objectives for which the study was undertaken were as follows:

1. To know the demographic and socio-economic status of the Sindh journalists
2. To know their working conditions and professional identifications.
3. To assess their job satisfaction, job security, importance assigned to job and professional commitment.
4. To understand the perceptions regarding the news media functions and roles held by Sindh journalists.
5. To determine the level of computer literacy and professional training of Sindh journalists.
6. To know their political affiliations and ideologies.
7. To know their professional attitude and values.
8. To assess the media consumption level, attitude and interests of Sindh journalists.
9. To assess their level of media freedom and professional autonomy.
10. To assess the factors which influence Sindh journalists in their work.
11. To know the attitude of the state towards news media and news people in Sindh.
12. To know the common methods by which the state controls the news media.
13. To know about the physical security conditions of the Sindh journalists.

14. To know the contribution of media organisations and journalistic organisations in the professional development of Sindh journalists.

15. To know the motives and reasons behind factionalism among Sindh journalists

Therefore, to fulfil all these aims and objectives and to answer the research questions the research techniques which were used in the course of this study were firstly a cross-sectional survey and secondly focus group discussions.

### **1.4 Statement of Research Questions**

Taking into consideration the prevailing media system and media history in Pakistan, this study investigated the characteristics and attitudes of journalists who report and edit the news products for broadcast media in both television channels and radio; and print media, in particular, the daily newspapers and magazines published in the Sindhi, Urdu and English languages from Sindh province. Below are the research questions which were addressed in the survey and focus group components of this study.

#### **1.4.1 Survey Research**

1. *Research Question:* Demographic characteristics and work profile of the Sindh journalists. How do these differ with those of other countries?

2. *Research Question:* What are the levels of job satisfaction, security, importance and commitment among Sindh journalists?

3. *Research Question:* How do Sindh journalists perceive the role of the media (rating various news media functions) and how do these role perceptions compare with those of other developing and developed countries?

4. *Research Question:* What are the computer literacy and professional training backgrounds of the Sindh journalists?

5. *Research Question:* What are the political affiliations, ideologies and professional attitudes, beliefs, values of Sindh journalists and how do these differ from those in other countries?

6. *Research Question:* What forms of media consumption are prevalent among Sindh journalists and what are their attitudes concerning the credibility of that media?

7. *Research Question:* What are the levels of media freedom and professional autonomy of the Sindh journalists, and to what extent do they consider various influential factors – personal values, organisation policy and government media laws – in their journalistic work?

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### **1.4.2 Focus Group Discussions**

8. *Research Question:* What is the attitude of state towards the media and the Sindh journalists?

9. *Research Question:* What tools does the state commonly apply to restrain the news media, in the perception of Sindh journalists?

10. *Research Question:* What are the physical security conditions of the Sindh journalists?

11. *Research Question:* What is the role of the media organizations and journalistic organisations/press clubs in the professional development of Sindh journalists?

12. *Research Question:* What are the reasons for the rifts among Sindh journalists?

The prime objectives of this research were to study the demographics, background, basic characteristics, education and professional training level, values and ethics, and to know about the job and working conditions of the Sindh journalists. The study also set out to explore the journalists' level of interest in the profession, and their overall opinion, perception and attitude regarding the journalism or media profession. To fulfil all these aims and objectives and address the research questions of the study a cross-sectional survey and focus group discussions were used to accumulate the primary data.

### **1.5 Design of the Study**

This study consists of eight chapters. Chapter one comprises the introduction to the study, mainly encompassing the background, justification, aims and objectives of the study, and research questions. A description of the design of the thesis has been included in the end of this chapter.

The second chapter includes a profile of Pakistan, with brief geographic, political, and economic overviews. In addition, the chronology of media development in Pakistan, encompassing the story of print media development before and after the creation of the country, has been discussed. The development of broadcast media, embracing the history of radio, television, cable television and internet has been presented. Further there is a description of organisation and control of print, broadcast and new media in Pakistan.

Chapter three expounds news regulations and the culture of journalism in Pakistan. The regulations of print and broadcast media, laid down in the constitution of the country, and how these regulations worked themselves out in practice, are discussed.



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Journalism culture, the workings and procedures of press clubs in general and in Sindh, the relationship between press clubs and the government, the functions of these clubs, the criteria and categories of membership in them, and the development of press clubs as an international forum, are described in detail.

Chapter four describes the research methodology of the study. It mainly discusses research design, and reasons to choose survey and focus groups methods. Moreover, population and location, sampling design and selection, data collection and its venue and timing, questionnaire design and administration, data analysis techniques and research ethics have been discussed.

Chapter five presents an analysis of the survey data regarding demographic characteristics and work background of the respondents. The demographic characteristics encompass gender and age, ethnicity and religion, income and education of the respondents. The work background section includes job title identification, job seniority, organisational affiliation, language of the employer media organisation, preference for English media, working under private and state-run media, mode of working and status of job tenure of those who work in state-run media.

Chapter six of the thesis discusses the main findings of the survey data which includes the level of job satisfaction, job security, job importance, job commitment, and perceptions of the journalists about news media roles. The chapter also includes discussions about computer literacy, professional training, political affiliation and ideology, professional attitudes, beliefs and values, media consumption attitude, media freedom and professional autonomy of the Sindh journalists. Finally, the factors which influence journalists in their professional duty have been analyzed.

Chapter seven presents data analysis of the focus groups discussions. The main themes discussed in this chapter are first, the attitude of the state towards the news media in general and during military and democratic regimes in particular. The second theme highlighted is the tools which the state or government uses to restrain the news media. The third theme is the vulnerability of rural journalists and the stance of the government toward security threats to journalists. The fourth theme is the role of media organisations and press clubs in the career development of journalists, and finally the reasons for factionalism among Sindh journalists.

Chapter eight concludes the study by providing summaries and general discussions of the findings. The general discussions are based upon survey and focus group findings. Moreover in presenting general discussions the main findings of survey and

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focus groups have been provided. The chapter concludes with a discussion of this study's contribution to knowledge, limitations of the study, and suggestions for the related future research.

## **2 PAKISTAN AND ITS MEDIA – REVIEW OF MEDIA DEVELOPMENTS**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter begins with a brief description of geographic, political and economic overview of Pakistan including the background behind the creation of the country, the level of population growth and the operating political system in Pakistan. Further, the historical background of media development – print, broadcast and new media - in Pakistan is also discussed which encompasses the period of media development before and after the independence of Pakistan and then after till the establishment and arrival of cable TV and new media. And finally the chapter highlights the pattern of organisation and control of media in Pakistan – print, broadcast and new media – while touching its key elements like quality, circulation, advertising, policy trends, ownership and subsidy.

### **2.2 Profile of Pakistan: A Geographic, Political and Economic overview**

#### **2.2.1 Background**

When the division of British India and the decolonization of southern Asia took place two states emerged. One of them was Pakistan and its birth took place on 14 August 1947 (Jaffrelot, 2004). Such development has also been termed as ‘the outcome of a long historical sequence’(Jaffrelot, 2004, p. 1), because, ‘religious, social, and cultural differences had developed feelings of separateness long before the twentieth century’ (Peshkin, 1962, p. 152) between Hindu and Muslim which were the two predominant religious communities of British India. In consequence of a civil war in 1971, the East section of Pakistan separated and became an independent nation called Bangladesh ( World factbook 2010). The chief cause of that civil war was that ‘For Pakistan’s majority Bengali community (which dominated East Pakistan from 1947 – 70), the principle of majority rule was sacrosanct, and the new country of Bangladesh eventually spilt with Pakistan in 1970 – 1971 because of this issue’ (Cohen, 2002, p. 112).

Finally in recent past after the assassination of a prominent and popular political leader, Benazir Bhutto, in Pakistan on 27 December 2007 (Reuben, 2008), ‘In February 2008, Pakistan held parliamentary elections and in September 2008, after the resignation of the former President Pervaiz Musharaf (army general), Asif Ali ZARDARI was elected to the presidency’ World factbook (2010).

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### 2.2.2 *Geography*

Geographically contemporary Pakistan lies in the Southern part of the Asian continent (World factbook 2010), and is 'located to the east of the Persian Gulf and in close proximity to China and Russia' (Talbot, 1998, p. 21). Additionally, Pakistan also keeps the Khyber Pass and Bolan Pass, routes between Central Asia and the Indian Subcontinent (World factbook 2010). Its entire area is 796,095 Sq. km. (U.N, 2010) and it has a diverse climate, predominantly hot and dry in the desert and temperate in the northwest; and arctic in the north, (World factbook 2010).

### 2.2.3 *People and Population*

Administratively Pakistan consists of four provinces, Punjab (205, 344 Sq. km.), Sindh (140,914 Sq. km.), Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa (74,521 Sq. km.), and Balochistan (347,190 Sq. km.). The tribal belt bordering Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa is managed by the Federal Government as the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) (U.N, 2010). According to the 1998 population census there are 132.35 million people in Pakistan (Government of Pakistan 2010) with the growth rate 1.555% which is further distributed in the following ethnic groups: Punjabi 44.68%, Pashtun (Pathan) 15.42%, Sindhi 14.1%, Siraiki 8.38%, Muhajirs 7.57%, Balochi 3.57%, other 6.28% (World factbook 2010). In the context of religion, the majority of the population (95%) is comprised of Muslims; other religions include Christian and Hindu (5%). Moreover, in Pakistan although Urdu is the *national* language and English the *official* language (U.N, 2010), many other languages are also spoken, of which the percentages are as follows: Punjabi 48%, Sindhi 12%, Siraiki 10%, Pashtu 8%, Urdu (official) 8%, Balochi 3%, Hindko 2%, Brahui 1%, English (official; lingua franca of Pakistani elite and most government ministries), Burushaski and other 8%. The literacy level defined as those age 15 and over who can read and write stands at 49.9% (2005 est.) of the total population according to the World factbook (2010).

### 2.2.4 *Government and Politics*

The complete and official name of this country is the *Islamic Republic of Pakistan*, (U.N, 2010), more commonly known as *Pakistan*; politico-systematically it is a federal republic (World factbook 2010) comprising four provinces: Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa, Punjab, Sindh and Balochistan which are further administratively setup into Divisions and Districts as follows (See table 2.1):

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**Table 2.1 Administrative setup of Pakistan**

Provinces	Divisions	Districts
Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa	7	24
Punjab	8	34
Sindh	5	21
Balochistan	6	22

Source: U.N. Pakistan Mission to United Nations

However, it is significant to notice that ‘FATA (Federally Administered Tribal areas) include 13 Areas/Agencies. Azad Kashmir and the Northern Areas have 7 and 5 Districts respectively (U.N, 2010). Constitutionally the chief of the state is a President who is elected for a term of five years by a secret ballot through an Electoral College comprised of members of the Senate, National Assembly, and the provincial assemblies, and the head of the government is a Prime Minister who is elected by the National Assembly, (World factbook 2010). Federally chosen governors head the provinces and chief ministers elected by provincial assemblies rule the provinces. However, contrary to this simple narration of the political structure it has well been documented historically by Cohen that for a half century political leaders have been alternated by the army generals: as first Prime Minister Liaquat Ali Khan was murdered in 1951 and was followed by the army government of General Ayub Khan and General Yahya Khan. Then Yahya Khan was followed by popular political leader Zulifqar Ali Bhutto, however, Bhutto was hung by military in 1979 and it led an other 10-year dictatorship of General Zia lasting till 1988 and finished due to a plane crash of the army general Zia-ul-Haq. Benzir Bhutto and Nazwa Sharif both political leaders then become successors of each other two times as prime minister in the late 1980s and 1990s. Then lastly, the military deposed Nawaz Sharif through bloodless coup (Cohen, 2002, pp. 111-112).

Against the backdrop of such a chequered political career, while analyzing the constitutional saga of Pakistan Cohen (2002) traced its history that the political instability becomes visible in Pakistan’s unsuccessful efforts to establish working constitution. In 55 years, three constitutions were designed - in year 1956, 1962, and 1973 – but in 1985 General Zia altered the constitution having brought an Eighth Amendment into it. Later in 1998 Nawaz Sharif scrapped that amendment. Overall national elections were held during 1985, 1988, 1990, 1993, and 1997, but no elected

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government got success in the period of 55 years, and all governments were dissolved either by army or presidential actions (Cohen, 2002, p. 112).

Niazi says that there have been a total of 23 years of military dictatorships, and that these have corrupted both the public and private sectors of Pakistan's national life. (Niazi 2005, p. 36). In consequence, 'people in this country have lived most of their lives under the shadow of martial law, debris of abrogated constitutions and without any fundamental rights (Niazi 2005, p. 46). Finally, at the moment in Pakistan more than twenty different political parties, factions and leaders are active in the country. In addition, the other political pressure groups and leaders are military (most significant political force); ulema (clergy); landowners; industrialists; and small merchants (World factbook2010) which all have, directly or indirectly, profound implications for the media and the work of journalists.

### **2.2.5 Economy**

Pakistan, standing in the line of an 'impoverished and underdeveloped country has suffered from decades of internal political disputes and low levels of foreign investment'. Added to that 'inflation remains the top concern among the public - jumping from 7.7% in 2007 to 20.3% in 2008, and 14.2% in 2009'. Moreover, its GDP (per capita) is \$2,500 (2009 est.), which stands composed as agriculture 20.8%, industry 24.3% and services 54.9% (2009 est.). The distribution of the labour force by occupation follows agriculture 43%, industry 20.3% and services 36.6% (2005 est.), (World factbook2010).

## **2.3 Media development in Pakistan: Print, Broadcast, Cable TV and New Media**

### **2.3.1 Print Media**

#### **Before Independence**

The roots of the press in Pakistan can be traced to the journalism of the subcontinent which was founded in 1780 when James Augustus Hickey brought out the 'Bengal Gazette' (Al Mujahid, 1982 p.76) say Ali & Gunaratne (2002, p. 157). However, "The idea of modern journalism in the subcontinent has its origin in the well-knit spy and communication system, which later developed into a news writing technique" (Niazi 2005, p. 8). Moreover, the journalism of the subcontinent has been classified into three major categories - the Anglo-Indian press, the nationalist press, and the Muslim press - during colonial India (Al Mujahid, 1982) conclude Ali & Gunartne (2002).

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Firstly, the Anglo-Indian press followed the British newspapers' pattern and so developed into a professional, economically strong and influential media. Secondly, the nationalist press that emerged during the 1820s was mainly owned by Hindus and was in various local languages (Al Mujahid, 1982). The first vernacular paper it is said was the Persian-Urdu 'Jaam-e-Jahan Numan' (Shamsuddin, M. 1986) observe Ali & Gunaratne (2002). Third, the Muslim press (Origin of Pakistani Press) started in 1836 when Maulivi Muhammad Baqar brought out 'Urdu Akhbar' (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). In its commencement it began as a literary paper, however, when internal relations between local people and the British worsened, then it turned political and critical of British rule. Until the mutiny of 1857, the number of Muslim-owned papers rose rapidly. However, the British government stopped all Muslim-owned papers with the exception of two, and hanged Baqar, while other editors were treated strenuously (Haider, 1990). Moreover, Sir Syed Ahmed Khan founded the 'Scientific Society Magazine' in 1866. Later in 1877 he also brought out 'Urdu Tehzibul Akhlaq' and these papers developed critical thinking among Muslims, see Ali and Gunaratne (2002).

According to Niazi (2005) before independence, all journalists had one main priority, and that was to get rid of English rule. Muslim and non-Muslim alike agreed on this one policy objective. The three Muslim big names, Maulana Mohammad Ali, Maulana Hasrat Mohani and Maulana Zafar Ali Khan, were the main spokesmen in this area. Even though the press was by and large owned by wealthy businessmen who would stand to suffer financial loss, it still chose independence. Because of the missionary and the revolutionary role of the press during those days, people came to defend the papers and periodicals whenever the papers invited the wrath of the alien rulers (Niazi 2005). Since 1925, the Muslim press reached 220 papers in nine vernaculars, among them Urdu 120; English 18; and Bengali 14, however, most of them had poor circulation and revenue, (Kurian, 1982) report Ali & Gunaratne (2002).

As Muslims of the subcontinent started their movement for a new country they needed papers to make their voice heard. Therefore, during the 1930s and 1940s Mohammad Ali Jinnah, then the president of the Muslim League, encouraged the bringing out of newspapers for the voice of Muslims. Ali & Gunaratne (2002) say that Jinnah established the English newspaper Dawn in the 1930s as a weekly and that it turned into a daily in 1942. However, Niazi (2005, pp. 110-111) disputes this, and suggests that the Dawn was actually launched on October 19, 1941 as a weekly, with Hasan Ahmed as its editor, Z.A. Suleri and Aziz Beg as members of the staff. He

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furthermore argues that Jinnah wanted Dawn to depict the views of Indian Muslims, and the peoples of the subcontinent generally.

Moreover, regarding the working environment at Dawn, the newcomers had to begin their journalistic career with Star (special edition of the Dawn). After nearly two to four weeks they were put on regular shifts. So, in a way, Star was a nursery for Dawn workers (Niazi 2005, p. 121). Additionally The Dawn, which is now the leading English-language international newspaper of Pakistan, was a school, college, and university for aspiring journalists. According to Niazi, the majority of its senior journalists were generous and zealous, and they passed their knowledge to their juniors. Some of them had an eye for identifying talent and groomed them. In addition, the majority of them were book-lovers, insatiable readers, and some had a fine taste for literature. Many of them had their own world of book collections. After reading a certain book or an article they would incite their juniors to read it, thus developing the reading habit among their juniors (Niazi 2005, p. 136). Numerous other Muslim papers appeared in India, among them the most influential were Azad, the Star of India, and the Morning News of Calcutta; Mansoor and Anjam of Delhi; Nawa-e-Waqt, The Pakistan Times, and Eastern Times of Lahore; The Weekly Observer of Allahabad; Sind Times of Karachi; New Life of Patna; and Khyber Mail of Peshawar. In addition, as many of the provincial governments opposed the creation of Pakistan at that time, numerous Muslim newspapers were seized, cite Ali & Gunaratne (2002) to Kurian (1938).

The other significant aspect is that the areas of India where the press was weak became part of Pakistan. In East Pakistan and Baluchistan there was no daily (Kurshid, 1971); in North West Frontier Post (NWFP) there were two dailies. Though Lahore and Karachi had the most newspapers, the majority of journalists were Sikhs and Hindus who left for India due to separation (Shamsuddin, 1986) cite Ali & Gunaratne (2002). To fill that gap some Muslim papers shifted from India to Pakistan and Dawn was established in Karachi. Jang and Anjam, both Urdu papers published in Delhi, moved to Karachi. Bengali dailies Azad and the English Morning News moved to Dhaka in East Pakistan from Calcutta. However, due to the changed political and economic environment many newspapers could not survive except Dawn, Jang and Nawa-e-Waqt, now the leading media groups of Pakistan (Ali, 1992) according to Ali & Gunaratne (2002). At the birth of Pakistan journalism was very much in its infancy and had a long way to go in order to develop any degree of professionalism.



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### **After Independence**

The development of media in Pakistan after the independence of the country has been documented below by dividing it into three periods and that pattern was fundamentally followed by Ali & Gunaratne (2002) which seemed facilitating and logical particularly in context of political systems prevailed during those periods.

### **Between 1947 to 1958**

Pakistan in 1947 could be depicted as pre-industrial, feudal, rural and illiterate. However, later on, gradual urbanization, increase in literacy and a rise in per capita income caused greater political participation and all this had an important effect on the press in the form of the emergence of new publications; and increase in the size, circulation and advertising volume of publications. In addition technical improvements were introduced (Al Mujahid, 1994). However, in the beginning, the government saw freedom of the press as a threat to the sovereignty of the country, so the old laws were retained to control the press (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). Even just a month after the death of Quaid Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah (First Governor General of Pakistan), in September 1948 a piece of legislation named The Public Safety Ordinance was enforced in October 1948. Later in 1952 this piece of legislation, called the Security of Pakistan Act, was approved by the Constituent Assembly, and it was then made part of subsequent constitutions. The enforcement of the Security of Pakistan Act limited civil liberties, including freedom of speech and expression (Niazi 2005, p. 77). In this way, the media in Pakistan and in particular print has seen many constraints and restraints in the form of the arrest of journalists, closure of publications, black Press laws, Press Advice System, pre-censorship and half or complete withdrawal of newsprint and advertisement quotas (Niazi 2005, p. 55). Moreover, during the first seven years of Pakistan 33 papers had been banned in Punjab province and 15 had to submit security deposits (Napoli, 1991). However, despite these restraints the number and circulation of newspapers and magazines grew. Between 1947 and 1958 the number of periodicals increased from 556 to 1,106 - double; and dailies from 34 to 103 – triple; in addition, the circulation of dailies increased from 125,000 to 716,000 (Shamsuddin, 1986) cited in (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

### **1958 to 85**

1958 was the beginning of the rule of Field Marshal Ayub Khan who established the pattern of press censorship and enforced the system of ‘press advice’ which delegated to

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officials the authority to dictate what, and what not to publish (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). Moreover, in the context of “Press Advice” a call from the Press Information Department was enough to ban, highlight or play down any news or photo (Niazi 2005). As a consequence, this period caused the number of dailies to decline from 102 in 1959 to 74 in 1960 and weeklies, biweeklies from 379 in 1958 to 260 in 1969 (Khurshid, 1971), according to Ali & Gunaratne (2002).

In addition to this in 1959 the government took over the publishing of the leading English newspaper *Pakistan Times* and *Urdu daily Imroze*, along with Lahore’s Progressive Papers Ltd. Then in 1961 the government of Ayub Khan took over the *Associated Press of Pakistan* (APP) one of the two news agencies in the country. In 1964, the government took over *PPL papers*, *Morning News* and other various papers and created the *National Press Trust*. Ayub’s dictatorial government also imposed the Press and Publications (Amendment) Ordinance of 1963 which assigned the government great powers to grant or deny permission to news publications and prohibit reporting on a wide range of subjects. During the war with India in 1965 the Defence of Pakistan Rules (DPR) were declared as an emergency. In this way the DPR and the Emergency declared during the Ayub era remained in force for 20 years and subsequent governments also applied them to ban papers, take over printing presses, and jail journalists (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

After Field Marshal Ayub Khan was forced to resign due to civil unrest another General, Agha Mohamad Yahya Khan, took over the reins of the country in 1969 and along with martial law he also imposed press censorship during the civil war in East Pakistan (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). General Yahya, having enforced Martial Law on March 25, 1969, abrogated the 1962 constitution and took further harsh steps. Along with banning political activities, the press was also ordered to refrain from criticism of the government (Niazi 1992, p. 25). When East Pakistan separated in 1971 Zulfikar Ali Bhutto came to power as the president and chief martial law administrator. Bhutto subsequently became prime minister and along with continuing the repressive policies against the press like censorship, press advice, banning of papers, and use of threats, also controlled NPT (National Press Trust) papers and took extra-legal actions against journalists and media organizations. Further, to control the non-cooperative publications he used advertisement and newsprint allocation as a tool (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). In this way, newsprint and advertising corrupted the Press, as government-favouring papers were awarded liberal quotas of newsprint and advertisements and others were

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denied. Additionally, during 1972 the Bhutto regime directed the government and semi-government, autonomous and semi-autonomous institutions, to award their advertisements through the Government Information Department only. In this way they controlled over 60 per cent of newspaper advertisements (Niazi 2005). Even today the standard for awarding advertisements and newsprint quotas is not the circulation but “content, spirit and principles adopted by them and how committed they are to the promotion of Islamic principles” (Niazi 2005, p. 40).

Bhutto was removed in 1977 by another army dictator General Zia-ul-Haque who also continued the same practice of controlling and gagging the press but the Zia government went further. For the first time in the history of Pakistan four journalists were publically whipped for opposing the government (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). The post-1977 period was the worst period in the history of journalism in Pakistan as newspapers started to be banned. Further, from October 1979 to January 1982 (for newspapers) and March 1983 (for periodicals) pre-censorship of all material, including magazines and books continued, compelling the Press to follow the government policy (Niazi 2005, p. 40). In March 1982 CMLA-President General Zia said “I could close down all the newspapers, say, for a period of five years, and nobody would be in a position to raise any voice against it. If they try to organize a meeting or procession, I will send them to jail.” (Niazi 2005, p. 41). In the era of Zia martial law, the press was ordered on October 21, 1982 that “cases under trial in special military courts were not to be reported unless allowed by the courts or MLA HQs” (Niazi 2005, p. 47). Further, all foreign news items had first to go through the state-controlled APP news agency and government-subsidized PPI offices, where every item was screened before they were given to newspaper offices (Niazi 2005, p. 49). Moreover, following B.G Horniman (who during World War II set the tradition of leaving blank spaces in the Bombay Sentinel, “an evening paper”, due to censorship. Horniman wanted his readers to know that the censor was at work) the tradition of leaving blank spaces in newspapers was revived during the beginning of the period of Zia’s martial law in Pakistan (Niazi 2005, p. 124).

In addition to state and government legislative restrictions, press freedom was also hindered by pressure from proprietor editors, advertisers, political parties and social, communal, student and trade union groups. There was continuous harassment, intimidation and browbeating by local thugs, cops and organized raids on newspaper offices, beating of reporters and photo journalists were common events (Niazi 2005, p.

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42). Raids on newspaper offices, beating of reporters and photographers, snatching of cameras and film rolls and snatching newspapers from hawkers became standard practices. For example, in 1982 a group of students ransacked the offices of Jang and Nawa-i-Waqat (Lahore), damaged office furniture, cut phone lines and attacked the staff. In another incident, vandals attacked the offices of the Frontier Post on January 12, 1987, ransacked all the equipment and pounced upon the staff, not sparing even two women staff members. Once during the raid on Nawa-Waqt, a female reporter was dragged by her hair. During the first PPP government (1971-77), raids were conducted on the offices of The Times, Rawalpindi, and Jasarat, Karachi; in July 1987, a campaign of violence was started against Karachi Jang by the Mohjar Quomi Movement (now known as Mutahada Quomi Movement MQM). Thousands of copies of Jang and its sister publications were set on fire for three days continually. MQM systematized a boycott of Jang in Karachi, Hyderabad and other cities of Sindh Province. The rest of the Urdu press, instead of condemning this campaign against Jang newspaper, increased their print order to fill the vacuum created by the boycott. The offices of Jang, and Quetta were raided and damaged by a group equipped with incendiary material which included petrol bombs. The Dawn offices in Islamabad and Karachi also faced the mobs' wrath too when, during a protest march in Islamabad, some students chased a foreign TV crew and the crew took shelter in the Dawn bureau. The students threw stones at the Dawn office and damaged window panes. On May 27, All-Mohajir Students' Organization encircled the offices of Dawn and other Herald publications The Star, The Herald, Gujrati Dawn and Watan to get published news items in their favour and block news stories which they felt were against them. The Karachi Press Club also was the worst victim of rowdyism. On November 27, 1987, Waseem Qazi, a freelance journalist was found killed in his house in Lahore. He was reportedly doing investigative reporting of the activities of heroin-barons in Punjab. Another journalist, Mohammad Bakhsh Odheno, was murdered on February 25, 1988 in Mehar city of Sindh province. In this way many other events of kidnapping and harassing of journalists in Pakistan could be found. See '*Terrorising the Press*' Niazi (2005).

### **1985 and after**

At the end of 1985 martial law was withdrawn and the political activities started and Defence of Pakistan rules lapsed. Following the death of Zia-ul-Haq the caretaker government repealed the PPO in 1988. However, the Registration of Printing Presses

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and Publications Ordinance (RPPO) was introduced, which remained enforced in the form of ordinances until 1997 (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). From January 1985 to 1997, twenty journalists have lost their lives in the line of their duties and journalism was still a dangerous profession. Those who lived by the pen risked dying by the gun (Niazi 2005, p. 91). The February 1996 Amnesty International report 'Pakistan: Human Rights Crisis in Karachi' said that journalists who reported critically on armed opposition groups were threatened with abduction and killing if they did not alter their reports. Amnesty's October 1996 report, 'Pakistan: Journalists Harassed for Exposing Abuses', cited twelve instances of the harassment of journalists monitored in the previous year (Niazi 2005).

### **2.3.2 Broadcast Media**

#### **Radio**

Radio which is said to be a medium which is in general 'more popular than ever' (McNair, 1998, p. 138) wields great influence over the people of Pakistan – much more than the daily newspapers (Khurshid, 1971). Hence, for the poor of Pakistan having access to the radio is their best choice (Ali, 2009). Historically the development of radio in Pakistan first started under the Indian Broadcasting Company (IBC) which was established during March 1926 as a station in Bombay. In this way organised broadcasting in the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent began. Later a small transmitting station was set up at Lahore in 1928, which then after December 1937 went on air.

In 1935 the NWFP Government (now the Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa province of present Pakistan) started a 250 watt transmitting station at Peshawar, the capital city of Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa, for community listening. Then on July 16, 1936 a station was set up at Peshawar which was converted into a relay station in March 1939. In July 1942 The Peshawar radio station shifted to a regular broadcasting house. In addition, in September 1939 along with centralizing the news bulletins in all languages at Delhi, in the same year, a station was also opened at Dhaka - now the capital city of old East Pakistan and present Bangladesh (Pakistan Broadcasting Corporation 2010).

After partition from British India in 1947, Pakistan inherited three radio stations in Lahore, Dhaka and Peshawar. However, Karachi got a medium wave transmitter station after a year (Al Mujahid, 1978; Siddiqui, 1991), Hyderabad and Quetta city also got radio stations within a decade (Ali & Gunaratne, (2002). Radio Pakistan which is exclusively state-owned and managed with fourteen (14) transmitting stations and thirty

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six (36) transmitters has a total power of 3680 kilowatts and a broadcasting area which covered the geographical area and population of all East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) and 88% of West Pakistan (Khurshid, 1971). Added to that, the first earth satellite station was set up in 1974 north of Karachi - now the capital city of Sindh province - (Al Mujahid, 1978) say Ali & Gunaratne (2002). Moreover, in the beginning, the government had the monopoly over radio broadcasting. However, that was dismantled when the government of Prime Minister Benazir Bhutto in 1995 permitted private sector FM broadcasting in Islamabad, Karachi and Lahore cities. However, there are allegations that exclusive permissions for the establishment of FM stations were granted to friends of the Bhutto family (Jabbar and Isa, 1997, p. 124) say Ali & Gunaratne (2002).

Then after the year 1988 in Pakistan remarkable changes in the laws about registration of newspapers and periodicals and licensing of broadcast media both radio and TV were witnessed (Ali, 2009). Airwaves were privatised in 2002 permitting the country's first independent radio stations and TV channels to be set up (Sigal & Rehmat, 2006). As a result private radio stations have been operating since 2002, and presently, more than 100 FM radio stations are running in different areas of Pakistan. Additionally, in contrast to the newspaper and TV channels which publish and broadcast their content from federal and capital cities, the majority of FM radio stations are based in rural areas. As far as state-run Radio Pakistan is concerned, at its inception it was limited to a few cities; however, now state-owned Radio Pakistan has also established radio stations in various cities and towns of the country. More significantly now the state-run Radio Pakistan also has its own reporters and stringers, and, in addition, it subscribes to news content from news agencies as well. In regard to licenses Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority (PEMRA) till now has issued more than 200 FM radio licenses and a great number of these stations are working. Although presently campus radio stations are operating in many universities of the country, these campus radios do not relay news and current affairs programs. From the perspective of community radio, it has been noted that policies of PEMRA do not encourage community radio, because, Ali (2009) mentions that some persons believe that permitting community radio stations would create a racist, linguistic and communal hatred in the people living in rural areas. Therefore, Pakistan is supposed to be the only country in the South Asian region where licenses to community radio are not issued. The other significant aspect of private radio broadcasting in Pakistan which has been

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mentioned is that due to the difficulties in receiving radio licenses groups have developed who run FM radio stations illegally. According to some estimates more than 100 unlicensed FM radio stations were being run by different religious and sectarian groups in the tribal areas of NWFP (recently renamed Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa) province. Finally, according to Ali (2009) in the start PEMRA had not allowed the private sector radio stations to broadcast news and current affairs programs; however, now PEMRA has made its laws lenient and some FM radios have started to broadcast news and current affairs; but lack of professional capabilities among broadcasters causes difficulties in presenting high quality news. Therefore, some FM radio stations are just reproducing the news of TV channels and newspapers (Ali, 2009). Hence, the private broadcast sector in Pakistan, particularly radio, is still striving to be established along professional lines (Sigal & Rehmat, 2006).

### **Television**

In the history of Sub-continental Asian broadcast media Pakistan was the first country that launched television in the region on 26 November 1964 from Lahore, the capital of Punjab province. The physical foundation of Pakistan television (PTV) was set up in October 1963 with the participation of the Private Sector supervised by the Government of Pakistan when the government signed an agreement with the Messers Nippon Electric Company Limited of Japan and two experimental pilot projects were established to run for ninety days first in Lahore and a month later in Dhaka - now the capital of Bangladesh (Khan, 2002).

At the completion of the experimental phase, a Private Limited Company was set up in 1965 in partnership with Nippon Electronic Company, Goshu Company Limited of Japan and Thomson TV (International) U. K. First the Company was incorporated on February 10, 1965 as a Private Limited Company named as “Television Promoters Company Limited”. Then on May 30, 1967 the Company was converted into a Public Limited Company with the name of “Pakistan Television Corporation Limited”. The two news TV stations were set up at Rawalpindi-Islamabad, the capital city of Pakistan, on January 15, 1967, and in Karachi the capital city of Sindh province on November 2, 1967. After a period of seven years two more TV stations were established at Quetta, the capital city of Baluchistan province, on November 26, 1974 and Peshawar, the capital city of NWFP, newly named Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa province,

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on December 5, 1974. Considering the effectiveness of television, a new educational channel, namely PTV-2 or ETV, was launched on November 26, 1992 (Khan, 2002).

Moreover in 1994, it telecast programs through AsiaSat, (Asian satellite system), to 38 countries and also began another satellite channel called PTV World during 1998, which enabled overseas Pakistanis in Asia to watch its programs. For Pakistanis in European states another station, Prime TV, was started (The News International, November 3, 1998, p.8) cited in Ali & Gunaratne (2002), and during the first half of 1999 the Mid-East Channel was also launched for Pakistanis in the Middle East (The Nation, February 26, 1999, p. 12) cited in Ali & Gunaratne (2002). Added to that, during 1989 the Benazir Bhutto government authorized the Shalimar Recording Company to set up a TV channel with the name People's Television Network which was later changed to Shalimar Television Network (STN). STN launched transmission in ten cities of Pakistan. Again during 1996 the second Benazir Bhutto government awarded a license to Shaheen Pay TV, a private company for establishment of the first pay-TV channel using the "wireless" MMDS technology (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

After 1988 in Pakistan there came a great change in the licensing laws of broadcast media. As a result, the TV channels under private ownership not only spawned rapidly, but also a new fundamental direction was given to the electronic media in Pakistan. Currently, more than 70 TV channels are working to offer information to viewers in Pakistan. In this way the private TV channels broke up the monopoly that the Pakistan state had over television, which was established through the only state-owned Pakistan Television Corporation (Ali, 2009) which has been under government control since the 1960s (Zia, 2008).

### **2.3.3 Cable TV**

The first cable television network was established privately in Karachi, the capital city of Sindh, during the 1980s in the absence of any regulatory law. The operating rooms of cable television were commonly established in the basements of the buildings giving connections to each apartment. Each household getting a connection was charged a small monthly fee by the operator. The main content that cable television had to offer at that time was Indian and English movies and Pakistan Television Corporation (PTV) dramas. However, in 1982, the availability of satellite channels in Pakistan caused a great change in the cable system and satellite-receiving dishes were installed to offer a variety of programmes to the subscribers from CNN, Star TV and Indian channels. In



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this way a high scale cable network was established. Moreover, in the 1990's satellite television reached an irresistible point in Pakistan and in 1998 the major channels transferred to decoders. In this way the business of cable television became well-established and flourished in a short space of time (Zia, 2008).

However, during 1998 the government of the time noticed that there was illegal cable television and before they could assign legal status to the operation of cable TV they were deposed by a military coup. Then during January 2000 while the army government was at the helm of the country, the operation of cable TV was legalized. The process of legalization of cable TV operation started in November 1998 and finished in January 2000 with Pakistan Telecommunication Authority (PTA) issuing licenses to the cable TV owners (Zia, 2008).

### **2.3.4 New Electronic Media (*Internet and On-line*)**

The Internet has been accessible in Karachi since 1995 via Digicom (a private e-mail provider). In 1996 not only the Pakistan Telecommunication Corporation Limited (PTCL) made its packet data network available for nationwide local-call access to the Internet but also Fascom launched an Internet service in Karachi (APT, 1999) say Ali and Gunaratne (2002). Moreover, though having a meagre number of Internet users in the country, numerous newspapers have begun Internet editions for overseas Pakistanis, which include Daily Jang, Daily Nawa-e-Waqt, Daily Dawn, Daily The Nation, Daily The News International, and Business Recorder which are all leading newspapers. Other papers on the Web are Din, Daily Hot News (English, from Islamabad), Jasarat, Friday Times (Weekly in English), The Frontier Post, Hi Pakistan, Information Times, Millat Online, News Network International, Pakistan Link, Pakistan News Service, and Pakistan Press International (PPI). Added to that state-run Radio Pakistan news is also available on PBC, website and state-run PTV has also launched a website (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). In Pakistan before 2008 there was a total of 18.5 million internet users, making it one of the top 20 countries across the world in internet usage (World factbook 2010).

## **2.4 Organization and Control: Print, Broadcast and New media**

### **2.4.1 Print media**

After the repeal of the Press and Publication Ordinance (PPO) in 1988, many newspapers have been brought into the market, particularly in the larger cities. The

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government of Benazir Bhutto in 1995-96 privatized the newspapers belonging to the state-owned National Press Trust (NPT). Therefore, the government does not own or control any newspaper, except one major news agency, the Associated Press of Pakistan (APP). Now the major media groups in Pakistan, whose content is read across Pakistan, are firstly the Jang Group which enjoys a monopoly over Urdu readership in Sindh and Rawalpindi-Islamabad. This group brings out Daily Jang (Urdu), Awam (Urdu), Daily News (English), The News (English) and Akhbar-e-Jehan, the largest circulating weekly magazine in Urdu. Secondly, the Herald Group that brings into the market Daily Dawn (English), Star (English evening paper), The Herald monthly (English), and Spider monthly (English). The Herald publications have focused upon the better educated and affluent sections of Pakistani society. Third, the Nawa-e- Waqt Group which publishes Daily Nawa-e- Waqt (Urdu), Daily The Nation (English), and Family Weekly (Urdu). Added to that Pakistan has two main news agencies: first the Associated Press of Pakistan (APP) which is state-owned and controlled; second Pakistan Press International (PPI) which is an independent news agency in the private sector. Apart from these two, several other new news agencies have also emerged, some of which are funded by political parties and groups (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

### **Quality**

Since Pakistan's comeback towards democracy in 1988, there has been a mushrooming of evening newspapers which report political news in a sensational and partisan way (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). Moreover, regarding evening newspapers, as two international cities Karachi and Bombay (former in Pakistan and later in India) have many similarities. One of the similarities between them is that both are very greatly populated and there 34 eveningers (evening/afternoon papers) are published in these cities Niazi (2005, p. 119). However, the significant and influential English-language dailies in Pakistan are the Daily Dawn and The News. In comparison with them the other two English-language dailies The Nation and Frontier Post have lower circulations. In the Urdu Language the Daily Jang is the leading newspaper followed by Nawa-e- Waqt, Pakistan, and Khabrain (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

### **Circulation**

During 1953-1958 the number of dailies increased from 55 to 103 and again after the end of martial law rule in June 1962, a press surge was observed with the number of dailies increasing from 75 in 1962 to 117 in 1970. The same year also saw the growth of

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periodicals, which numbered 1,145 in 1970. In 1970, the total daily circulation of newspapers was estimated at one million copies. This is only 8.3 copies for every 1,000 inhabitants which, even in terms of Third World standards, is rather low (Al Mujahid, 1994).

During 1988 in Pakistan there were 177 dailies which were published in four languages: 148 in Urdu, 14 in English, 12 in Sindhi and three in Gujrati. In the context of the four provinces in Pakistan, 61 dailies were published in Punjab, 86 in Sindh, 21 in the Northwest Frontier Province and 9 in Baluchistan. Despite advances made since the early 1950s, circulation is still extremely low, with about 75 percent of the dailies selling less than 10,000 copies each. The total daily circulation stood at 1,498,626 in 1988, which works out to only 13 copies per 1,000 persons and the circulation of dailies is still mostly confined to the urban areas. This is due to the lack of regional newspapers with a vested interest in local affairs and problems, and also the inability of well-educated and sophisticated journalists to understand the problems of rural and semi-literate audiences. Besides the loss of rural audiences and a high illiteracy rate (about 70 per cent), multiplicity of languages and fragmentation of readership have also conspired to keep newspaper circulation low. As a result, there are more dailies in Karachi (23), Lahore (26), Peshawar (16) and Rawalpindi-Islamabad (6) than readership and economy can support. Other reasons are that comparatively high costs of newspapers have led to borrowing or exchanging newspapers and low functional literacy rates have encouraged groups to listen to newspapers being read, especially in rural areas (Al Mujahid, 1994).

Apart from dailies, in 1988 there were 368 weeklies, 126 fortnightlies, and 776 monthlies and 374 quarterlies. Periodicals are brought out in 11 languages-Urdu, English, Sindhi, Pushto, Baluchi, Gujerati, Punjabi, Saraiki, Breuhi, Arabic and Persian. A great number of them specialise in literary and cultural subjects. There are also weeklies and monthlies specialising in trade and industry, science, medicine, films, and women and children's interests (Al Mujahid, 1994). The Jang (Urdu) is said to be the country's top daily newspaper with a circulation of 850,000 followed by Nawa-e-Waqt (Urdu) 500,000; Pakistan (Urdu) 279,000; Khabrain (Urdu) 232,000; and The News (English) 120,000; Dawn (English) 109,000; The Nation (English) 27,000; and Business Recorder (English) 22,000 (WAN, 1998, 1999) cited in Ali & Gunaratne (2002). There are 451 daily newspapers and 4,000 periodicals brought out (in nearly a half dozen languages) in all provinces of Pakistan and Azad Kashmir. The combined circulation of these publications would be 3 to 3.5 million copies for the population of 140 million

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people, that is, approximately one copy for 70 persons (Niazi 2005, pp. 24-25). Among all dailies and periodicals the Urdu language newspapers and magazines have the largest circulation in the country followed by the English and the Sindhi press. The English newspapers appeal to a small, and better educated elite. Sindhi is the only regional language with a developed press (Sajid, Z. 1996). In Pakistan because of low circulation, generally media organizations have financial problems. Most suffer from a low level of advertising, costly imported newsprint, printing machinery, and supplies (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

The other main brake on the growth of the newspaper industry is the low rate of literacy. In a population of about 120 million, officially 34 percent of the people are literate, but this figure also includes millions who can hardly sign their names. Possibly 8 per cent of the population is confident in speaking the English language. In a total daily circulation of 1.4 million copies in the four languages of Urdu, Sindhi, Punjabi, and English the share of the latter is almost 300,000 copies. And in a total number of nearly 2,000 dailies and periodicals which is very low figure (Niazi 2005, pp. 96-97).

### **Advertising**

In Pakistan during 1998 the display advertising revenue for all media stood at 6.62 billion Rs. Television claimed the largest share with 49 percent followed by newspapers 32 percent, magazines 10 percent, outdoor 6 percent and radio 3 percent. The largest advertiser in Pakistan is the government, which accounts for nearly 30 percent of all advertising in national newspapers. All government departments send their advertisements to the Press Information Department (PID) for distribution to the media which is responsible for channelling government advertising (WAN, 1999). As a result smaller newspapers are highly dependent upon state advertisements (Akif and Siddique 1998) cited in Ali & Gunaratne (2002).

### **Policy trends**

The state and media relations in Pakistan are in a process of change. The trend towards greater press freedom by the government remains under pressure, and the courts have also made decisions in favour of the media in cases involving contempt and defamation. In addition, pressures from various national and international organizations have also had a positive effect on freedom of the press, particularly, in cases of attacks on rural journalists by local officials and influential persons. However, in spite of restrictive laws and institutional provisions, according to Freedom House "Pakistan's press is

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among the most outspoken in South Asia” (Freedom House 1999, p.356). It therefore, has been put in the “partly free” category (ibid). Freedom House also awarded Pakistan the maximum points on the criterion of repressive actions on the press and also placed it high on the criterion of political pressures and controls on media content - 13 out of 15 for both broadcast and print media (Sussman, 1999) cited in Ali & Gunaratne (2002).

Further notable liberalization of foreign exchange during 1990 caused a liberalization of newsprint allocation. The quota is given as per circulation figures certified by the Audit Bureau of Circulation (ABC), a department of the Ministry of Information in the government of Pakistan. However, the figures of ABC have low credibility. The government also has a chief role in developing the financial viability of the press, as nationalization of industries during 1970 pushed 69 percent of Pakistan’s advertising under state control. However, due to privatization of major industries and banks the share of government advertising has been decreasing since 1990 (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). However, the other aspect of the press in Pakistan as points out Niazi that in the name of freedom of expression, all types of lie, half truths, misinformation, and disinformation are being propagated by the print media, with exception of a new (2005, p. 93).

### **2.4.2 Broadcast media**

#### **Quality and programming**

##### **(1) Radio**

The Pakistan Broadcasting Corporation (PBC) Act changed Radio Pakistan into a statutory corporation during 1973. PBC is operated by a Board of Directors having the positions of chairman, a director general and six directors appointed by the government. The chairman of the organization happens to be the secretary of the Ministry of Information and Media Development. The headquarters of PBC are in Islamabad the capital city of Pakistan. The programs of PBC reach 100 percent of the population. Since 1998 PBC has also started an FM broadcasting service (Dawn, October 1, 1998, p.8) cited in Ali & Gunaratne (2002). According to Niazi the state-run and controlled electronic media (including radio) has access to about 90 percent of the population of the country (2005, p. 25).

The Pakistan Broadcasting Corporation (PBC) transmits its programs in 20 languages. The 18 national news bulletins are broadcast in Urdu and English, and 24 in regional languages. The local news is also broadcast by each language service radio

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station (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). Further, the programmes of PBC generally cover the issues of problems of health, education, environment, population welfare, agriculture, disabled persons, rights of women, human rights, minorities, and media freedom. The time allocation to different genres are as follows: news and current affairs 25 percent; religion, education, socio-economic 27 percent; and entertainment 48 percent (Pakistan Broadcast Corporation 2010).

### **(2) Television**

The Pakistan Television Corporation Ltd (PTV) is a state-owned media organization having 10 divisions: news, current affairs, programs, sports, international relations, engineering, finance, administration and personnel, PTV academy, and educational television (ETV). It has six television centres each managed by a general manager in Lahore, Karachi, Islamabad, Peshawar, Quetta and the ETV centre in Islamabad (PTV2). Television reaches 86 percent of the population and 37.5 percent of the country's territory (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). Pakistan Television Corporation's national news bureau in Islamabad broadcasts news from units in each provincial capital and six regional centres. The analysis of PTV-I and PTV-2 programs during 1996 claimed the allocation as: 56 percent entertainment, 16 percent news and current affairs, 10 percent education, 8 percent culture and religion, 4 percent advertising and the remaining to other categories (Gilani, 1998), and nearly its 54 percent programs are in Urdu. PTV subscribes to satellite feeds from international television news agencies and it is also a member of Asiavision (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

### **Ownership and subsidy**

Pakistan Television Corporation (PTV) and Pakistan Broadcasting Corporation (PBC) operate the state-owned TV and radio broadcasting. PTV receives an annual government subsidy, which comprises 50 percent of its yearly revenue, PTV's educational channel does not get advertising. However, since 1998, PTV has launched many projects such as PTV World and Mid-East Channel for enhancing the financial position of the organization (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

### **Policy trends**

In broadcasting the significant impact has been on the popularity of satellite dishes, which give people access to entertainment and news channels such as STAR TV, BBC, and CNN. Further the state has not made any effort to contain their sale and South-

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Asian satellite channels are very significant sources of news and information (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

### ***2.4.3 New Electronic Media – Internet and Online***

The Pakistan Telecommunication Authority (PTA) has regulated many restrictions on Internet use. Therefore, use of any sort of data encryption and voice transmission via internet was prohibited. Moreover Internet Service Providers (ISPs) are also responsible for ensuring that the programs and information served through electronic services do not stand against the accepted standards of morality and social values prevailing in Pakistan (Ali, 1997) put Ali and Gunaratne (2002).

### **2.5 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter traced the story of Pakistan, from its creation to the present, and outlined the growth of its political system, its geographic breadth, and noted its economic situation. The picture that emerges is of a country that is a little older than a half century and still developing one. In addition, the history of Pakistan seems riddled with political upheavals, beginning with a catastrophic civil war which caused it to break up into two parts and an army constantly interfering in the political process. Therefore, as a result the development of the country has proceeded in fits and starts.

The chapter also discussed the origin and development of media in Pakistan. Very fickle and agenda oriented in the beginning, they are now rapidly becoming commercialised. Further media in Pakistan has had their wings clipped in particular by dictatorial regimes in the name of the security of Pakistan. Therefore, the history of media in Pakistan is replete with everything from the arrest of journalists to the closure of publications, and to the withdrawal or unfair distribution of both news print and advertising.

### **3 NEWS REGULATIONS AND JOURNALISM CULTURES – PRESS CLUBS**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the ways by which the news in Pakistan has been regulated; however, differentiating between what has been claimed in the constitution and what has been implemented practically for both print and broadcast media. Further, the journalism culture prevailing in Pakistan, especially its press club system, its significance and the aims and objectives for establishing press clubs in general are discussed. Moreover, it explains how press clubs maintain their relationship with the government and what are the latent and manifest functions and membership criteria and categories of the press clubs. Finally, development of the press club at the international level and the press club system are discussed.

#### **3.2 Regulating news: Constitutionally and practically**

##### **3.2.1 *Constitutionally***

###### **Print Media**

In Pakistan freedom of the press comes from the right to freedom of speech and expression which is guaranteed by Article 19 of the Constitution of Pakistan (Niazi 2004). However, the press has been treated as the chief enemy by all Pakistan's dictators: the "controlled" democracy of General Iskandar Mirza; the "basic" democracy of self-appointed Field Marshal Ayub Khan; the "Islamic" republic of Zia-ul-Haq and the dubious democracies of Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, Nawaz Sharif and Benazir Bhutto were slightly different (Niazi 2005, p. 144). Historically, when Pakistan was founded, it inherited many laws related to the functioning of the press. However, until the death of Quaid-e-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah (the founder of Pakistan) no repressive legislation relevant to freedom of expression could be passed. A month after Jinnah's death, however, the Public Safety Ordinance which he had refused to sign, was enforced. After that in 1952, the five provincial ordinances functioning separately in each province were withdrawn and a consolidated piece of legislation was approved by the Constituent Assembly entitled the "Security of Pakistan Act", which later became part of the subsequent constitution (Niazi 2005, p. 77).

However, though the Constitution of Pakistan guarantees fundamental rights, and article 19 provides freedom of speech and the press, it bars the ridicule of Islam, the



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armed forces and the judiciary. In addition, the Penal Code mandates the death penalty for defiling the reputation of the Prophet of Islam and a life sentence for desecrating the Quran. The media laws which the state can use to control the news organizations and journalists include the Official Secrets Act, the Security of Pakistan Act, and Maintenance of Public Order Ordinance (MPO), which are all a legacy of the colonial era. The MPO was extended by Section 6 (a) of the West Pakistan Maintenance of Public Order Ordinance (MPO) (Ordinance 31 of 1960 as amended in 1963 and 1964). Section 6 (a) gave provincial governments an effective tool to control publications, provided authorities are “satisfied that such action is necessary....to the maintenance of public order” (Jabbar and Isa, 1997) cited in Ali and Gunaratne (2002).

Further, Jabbar and Isa (1997) cited in Ali and Gunaratne (2002) argue that the “three most profound changes in the laws of Pakistan relating to mass media” happened during the era of two caretaker governments. First, during the government of caretaker President Ghulam Ishaq Khan, the aforementioned press laws were replaced with the reasonable press laws of 1988, and replaced a second and third time, first by the Freedom of Information Ordinance in January, 1997, and secondly by the Electronic Media Regulatory Authority Ordinance on February 14, 1997. This took place during the caretaker government of President Farooq Leghari. However, after only four months these new laws were allowed to lapse during May-June 1997 under the Nawaz Sharif government (Zeitlin, 1999) cited in (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

Niazi, (2005) adds that since the 1960s rulers have regularized and contained print media with The Press and Publications Ordinance (PPO) 1963. Sections 23 and 24 empower the authorities to specify that if the content published in the press is “not for the public good”, and whenever the state is of the view that the publication has not abided by the guidelines of the state, they may take punitive actions in the form of furnishing a security deposit and the seizure of press ‘machinery’. The Information Ordinance (2000) is not better than the previous ordinance of 1997.

### **Broadcast Media**

#### **1: Radio**

Article 10 of Act 32 of 1973 calls for the Pakistan Broadcast Corporation (PBC) to carry out the instructions of the Federal Government with regard to the general pattern or policies in respect to programs, announcements and news to be put on the air from time to time (Jabbar and Isa 1997, p.314) cited in (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002). The chapter

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3 and 6 of the Act specify respectively the PBC's management structure and financial matters (Ali & Gunaratne, 2002).

### **2: Television**

The memorandum of Pakistan Television Corporation Ltd (PTV) drawn up in correspondence with the Companies Ordinance, and its articles of association, cover all aspects of PTV. The memorandum of association of Shalimar Recording Co. Ltd and the Television Receiving Apparatus (Possession and Licensing) Rules of 1970 also affect on the policy and legality of Pakistan television (Jabbar and Isa, 1997) cited in Ali & Gunaratne (2002).

However, during the last decade (since 2000) a great change in government media policy was seen due to the spread of broadcast media into the private sector. Already during the 1980 and early 1990 Shalimar Television Network (STN) which was only partially state-owned, emerged as an alternative to state-owned and controlled PTV. Furthermore during 1996 private sector FM-100 and Shaheen Pay TV were also authorised by the state. The Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority (PEMRA) was established by law to regulate privately-run broadcast media. PEMRA then received authority to issue licenses and oversee the smooth working of the private sector broadcast media. In this way the PEMRA was mandated to improve standards of information, education and entertainment, as well as to help ensure accountability, transparency and good governance by optimizing the free flow of information. PEMRA has also formulated cable television regulations and a code of ethics (Zia, 2008).

#### **3.2.2 *Practically***

During May, 1947 at the first All-India Muslim Newspapers Convention in New Delhi, about 100 editors and representatives of Muslim newspapers founded an All-India Muslim Newspapers' Association and an All India Muslim Journalists' Association (Al Mujahid, 1994). Jinnah was quoted as saying about the policy and ownership of Daily Dawn that "The Dawn will faithfully mirror the views of Indian Muslims and All-India Muslim League in all its activities ... fearlessly and independently. While its policy will be, no doubt, mainly to advocate and champion the cause of Muslims and the policy and programme of the All India Muslim League AIML, it will not neglect the cause and welfare of the peoples of the subcontinent generally" (Niazi 2005, pp. 110-111). Since its inception the Pakistani press has been deeply involved with politics.

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The press in Pakistan has also employed its share of black sheep, time-servers, flatterers, soldiers of fortune and power brokers and there are many invisible intelligence agencies which willingly enlist services of these “hawker journalists”, working news-persons and owners-editors. An Urdu-language book titled *Kalam Nigaron Ki Qalabazian* (In English “Somersaults of The Columnists”), compiled the work of six high-profile Pakistani columnists highlighting the ways the columns have changed their loyalties in favour of each new government. In addition there are columnists and editor-proprietors who take the side of one political party or another and when those parties get into power the journalists are rewarded by being made ministers, advisors and ambassadors. Some of them are even engaged into legislation or given desirable administrative posts, not only for themselves but also for their friends and families (Niazi 2005, pp. 26-28).

During General Muhammad Ayub’s martial law the National Press Trust (NPT) was established to “raise the standard of journalism”. However, the NPT’s papers served as a mouth piece of successive governments in Islamabad. Until the trust’s closure in 1996, it served the prevailing regimes with zeal and vigour. After every change of government, NPT papers amended their policies. In June 1961, the Associated Press of Pakistan (APP) (the news agency in Pakistan) was brought under government control by an ordinance. Like the NPT papers, the APP also served the cause of the establishment bureaucracy, and gained a reputation for being a centre of news management, fabrication, and distortion (Niazi 2005, p. 82). The Directorate of the Intelligence Bureau (DIB) during the General Ayub era used to put its agents in newspaper offices (Niazi 2004). When Zulfikar Ali Bhutto became a Prime Minister, General Ayub’s information secretary Altaf Gauhar was put on trial and a list of journalists who were on the governments’ payroll was submitted before a Sindh High Court bench headed by Justice Fakhruddin G. Ebrahim. However, Yahya Bakhtiar, then the attorney-general, requested the bench not to release the list. When his plea was accepted, the Pakistan Federal Union of Journalists (PFUJ) and its affiliated unions all over the country sounded a big hue and cry to make the list public; but it was all in vain (Niazi 2005, pp. 154-155).

A newspaper, *Jasarat*, which also suffered at the hands of state and PPP hoodlums was a mouth piece of Jamiat-i-Islami, a religio-politico party. In 1972 in a meeting of the PPP, *Jasarat* was condemned for its media policy and was warned to mend its ways. In addition, the PPP launched a campaign against *Jasarat*, as a result of

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which militants attacked the Jasarat office. A murder attempt was also made on the paper's special correspondent in Hyderabad city. Finally the newspaper was banned in 1973 and its editor Salahuddin was arrested (Niazi 1992, p. 192). Another paper Musawat, an Urdu daily, was the mouthpiece of the Pakistan People's Party (PPP) – the most popular political party in Pakistan. It was run by a private limited company whose chairperson was Begum Nusrat Bhutto, the wife of the executed Prime Minister of Pakistan Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, and whose managing director was Benazir Bhutto his daughter, and then herself two-time Prime Minister of Pakistan (Niazi 2004, pp. 6-8).

During the establishment of martial law under General Zia-ul-Haq, who came to rule Pakistan after having toppled the elected government of Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, the Ministry of Information had a “most-favoured journalists” list. However, then after that with the advent of democratic era, the names of some journalists were erased, but the list remained; and with the change of persons at the helm of affairs (Benazir Bhutto, Nawaz Sharif, again Benazir Bhutto and Nawaz Sharif), new names were added, a few dropped, and in this way another “most-favourite list” was lying on the shelves of the ministry (Niazi 2005, p. 138). During the second regime of Benazir Bhutto, a partial list of persons was leaked to the Press, containing the names of journalists who were on the payroll of previous governments – the administrations headed by Nawaz Sharif and General Zia. It carried the names of not more than three dozen journalists (Niazi 2005, p. 155). In this context, even Nawaz Sharif ex- Prime Minister of Pakistan himself also once alleged that “a number of journalists were on the payroll of the politicians”. This state of affairs still persists. Therefore, it has been alleged that, with the exception of a minority, the Press has abdicated its role of watchdog and has become a poodle of one or another party or the lapdog of the Establishment (Niazi 2004).

Another phenomenon which undermined journalistic impartiality was the outbreak of clashes between different ethnic groups in Sindh. Pakistani journalists slanted their coverage of these crises along linguistic and ethnic lines, resulting in distorted reporting in Sindhi and Urdu journals. These biases are perpetuated even now by journalists who are members of these ethnic groups. Urdu Dailies support the Mohajir Quami Movement (now the Mutihda Quami Movement a party of Urdu speaking Pakistani mainly based in Karachi the capital of Sindh) and Sindhi Dailies support the Sindh Cause. In fact, different issues of newspapers like Daily Jang or Daily Nawa-e-Waqt, both Urdu-language publications, support different sides of the conflict depending on which city they are published in. Not only that, during the height of the

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ethnic riots in Sindh in 1990, one publisher in Hyderabad was publishing two papers from the same premises - a Sindhi evening papers Khadim-e-Watan, and Urdu daily, Safir (now defunct) and these both were edited by the same person with entirely opposite editorial policies (Muhammad Hanif, a young journalist as quoted by Niazi (2004).

### **3.3 Journalism cultures – Press clubs**

#### **3.3.1 Press Club System**

##### **Press Club**

A press club can be defined as an organisation which facilitates the meeting and sitting of the journalists on a regular basis as they can have their growth socially cum professionally. Taketoshi (1989, p. 373) further adds that in America a press club is a social organisation for people in journalism and they have no relationship with state agencies and the club is supported financially by the reporters. However, Trelford (2006) says that:

*‘Press clubs came into being in different countries for different reasons. Sometimes they were formed primarily for social reasons, sometimes with a more professional-agenda and they have continued to develop in different directions, with various forms of funding, in the many countries’.*

Trelford continues that ‘Press clubs should find their own way forward, according to the kind of societies in which they operate. There need be no blueprint’ (2006). In particular, pointing to the delegates who came to participate in the dinner at Stationers’ Hall, London from the new democracies of Eastern Europe, and from the former Soviet Union, Trelford (2006) further, expresses his desire that he ‘wish them every success in establishing press clubs of their own’. However, simultaneously for the maintenance of credibility characteristic in journalism Trelford (2006) mentions that ‘We insist, however, that we remain non-political in a party sense’.

##### **Significance of the press club**

Press clubs came into existence for two reasons. They had a ‘social and professional – agenda’ (Trelford, 2006). First, to enable journalists to develop social contacts with other journalists, second to support their professional development and allow them to learn from the experiences and skills of each other. In this regard a similar view has

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been expressed about the London Press Club: *'The Club provides opportunities for journalists and others interested in the media to meet and learn of new developments, debate the latest issues and explore our collective past as communicators'* (London Press Club, 2008). Moreover, press clubs may play variant roles in different countries. For example, in Japan the 'press club system is the foundation of the country's mass media' (Yamamoto, 1989, pp. 371-372). Japan's press clubs system, known as Kisha Clubs *'is essential for the business of Japanese media for two reasons. First, members of the Kisha club have less risk of missing important news than those who do not have access to the club. Second they can obtain reliable information without any delay, making their news production process very efficient and stable'* (Hirose 1994) cited in Mochizuki (2007).

In a similar way, the chief aims of the Foreign Correspondents' Association (Australia & South Pacific) FCA are: to promote the professional interests of foreign correspondents working in Australia and South Pacific; to foster good relations between foreign correspondents, Australian authorities and the local press; to assist foreign correspondents and journalists visiting Australia; to provide forums for discussion of current affairs and matters of professional concern in Australia and the South Pacific region; to provide a social meeting place and entertainment, on a non profit basis, for members and their guests (Foreign Correspondents' Association Australian & South Pacific, 2008). In Tunstall's (1971) and Pedelty's (1995) accounts as well according to Sample (2002, p. 18) the reporters' club has been depicted as a significant 'supplement' for daily news gathering. However, on the contrary, Sample (2002, p. 18) says that while studying the Foreign Correspondents' Club of Japan (F.C.C.J) in the beginning he had an idea that the F.C.C.J would be a news gathering resource for its members, in regard to exchanging information while they meet socially but, none of the correspondents he talked to had personally used the club for such purpose.

### **Relations between the press club and the government**

Regarding the development of a relationship between press clubs and governments, Trelford (2006) concludes that 'some press clubs will be closer to governments than others. Some will be closer to business than others'. However, Trelford (2006) stipulates that 'We insist, however, that press clubs remain non-political in a party sense'. The reason is that 'Above all, we believe in freedom of speech and freedom of expression. We believe in the promotion of professional standards, such as integrity,

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accuracy and honesty. We believe press clubs can encourage and develop these standards' (Trelford, 2006).

However to the contrary, in Japan it is found that the Clubs are permanently established professional organizations which are offered perquisites such as rooms, equipment, and staff by major news sources within the government, important industries, and other corporate bodies (Horsley BBC correspondent in Tokyo Japan and the President of the Association of Foreign Correspondents in Japan), and the news sources in Japan give to the press clubs not only rooms but also telephones at no charge, and ministry staff to take care of the needs of the journalists. In addition, if any journalists' reports portray the Japanese government negatively the club's president would take action to isolate that journalist (Yamamoto, 1989, pp. pp 372-382). In this way, therefore, the Japanese government allows the right to obtain important information exclusively to the members of the club in Japan, and in return, or by the fear of losing their membership, the media that have their employees in the club demonstrate some restraint in criticizing their news sources, (Keita, 2007, pp. 15-16).

### **Manifested functions of press clubs**

Press clubs celebrate various social and professional activities both of national and international stature during different periods of the year. For example, some activities arranged by the Singapore Press Club during the year 2003 are the launch of the club's website and a talk on the topic 'The Threat of Terrorism' and the most significant event of the year was a talk by Dr Lee Boon Yang, Minister for Information, Communication and the Arts. In addition to those were a talk on 'China's threat to Asia's tigers' and an annual lunch with the Institute of Public Relations of Singapore (IPRS) (Aggarwal, 2003). Moreover, during the year 2007 the high profile activities of the Singapore Press Club were a Goodwill Mission to Pakistan, in which a 35-member delegation visited the main cities of Pakistan i.e. Karachi, Rawalpindi and Lahore and more important during that visit the delegation held wide ranging discussions with the Pakistan Prime Minister, Cabinet Ministers, the Karachi and Lahore Press Clubs, Pakistan TV and the Chambers of commerce. In addition to that the Singapore Press Club invited a prominent TV personality, Riz Khan, to give an after dinner talk and Steve Forbes was also invited to give a luncheon talk (Aggarwal, 2007). However, Aggarwal (2004) also noted that there was a poor response of the club members to the social events organized by the club; on the other hand there is a good response to activities related to media professions such as

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talks by leading newsmakers, and that events probably had more appeal because members found them more rewarding professionally. Further, the events organised at the London Press Club are listed as lectures, exhibitions, outings, monthly drinks and quarterly grills etc (London, 2010).

Finally, by visiting the websites of various press clubs and studying their activities one can conclude that as a social organization press clubs provide the following facilities and benefits for members: bars, health club restaurants, function-rooms, banqueting, souvenirs, hotel discounts. However, as a professional organization they provide and facilitate for: tips for visiting journalists, human rights awards, photographers of the year awards, establishing press freedom committees etc. In this way the arrangements of such activities by the press clubs indicate that the press clubs are in fact both social and professional organizations. They provide a platform not only for entertainment but also for professional development and generation of news and discussions about current issues by inviting the newsmakers to talk.

### **Latent functions of press clubs**

The one significant underlying motive or functions of press clubs may be the effort to institutionalise a press club culture. So journalists, while maintaining the relationship with governments and newsmakers, can also create a way to defend themselves and groom further the profession of journalism. This may be the case particularly in developing countries where journalism and journalists are the victims of strict and draconian laws by dictatorial or civil governments.

However, in the light of the account by Trelford (2006) that ‘some press clubs will be closer to governments than others’ it can be inferred that such press clubs which remain closer to governments possibly compromise professional journalistic standards and gain personal or union benefits.

### **Membership criteria and categories**

Every press club has its own criteria of accepting membership applications from candidates. In addition the membership categories as well vary slightly from press club to press club. For example in Japan press clubs generally give membership to employees of newspapers that belong to the Japan Newspaper Publishers and Editors Association. In this way, they not only exclude Japan’s small and medium-sized



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newspapers and trade papers but also large magazine companies and freelance journalists who belong to no single news medium (Yamamoto, 1989, p. 373).

However, the membership of the National Press Club of Australia consists of the influencers and decision makers of Australia; be they Federal or State parliamentarians, political advisors, Government Heads of Departments, diplomatic community, academia, legal and other professions and the foundation members – journalists (National Press Club of Australia 2008). Moreover, the membership categories of the Foreign Correspondents Club of Hong Kong are: Correspondents, those who are bona-fide members of the foreign media based in Hong Kong; journalists, those who are bona-fide journalists based in Hong Kong; Associates; and for those who are not in journalism but like to take advantage of particularly social activities, Corporate; this is a transferable membership with certain restrictions; Diplomatic; bona-fide full-time members of the Hong Kong diplomatic corps (Foreign Correspondents Club Hong, 2008).

### **Discipline**

Press clubs have written constitutions to make possible the smooth running of the clubs and the maintenance of discipline. These constitutions are generally drafted to address issues which include membership qualifications, membership criteria, membership categories, cessation of membership, establishment of executive bodies, powers of the executive bodies, proceedings and conduct of elections, accounting and constitutional amendments, etc.

### **3.3.2 *Development of Press Clubs at International level***

With the day by day rapid growth of the media and technology the press club system as well is not confined to any one local or national entity. However, on the contrary surpassing all the geographical boundaries it has taken roots as an international phenomenon. For example at an international level an organisation has been formed with the rubric of the International Association of Press Clubs (IAPC). This international association of media people came into existence in 2002 establishing its permanent General Secretariat in Dubai, United Arab Emirates, particularly with the vision to “foster dialogue, cooperation and exchange of practical experience and ideas between IAPC Members. It aims to uphold the ethics of journalism and free access and distribution of information and widen the channels of information for journalists in countries represented by the members to ultimately create a global information access

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network”. The IAPC has 20 member Press Clubs representing Europe, the Far East, Asia and the Middle East. The basic idea in establishing this international platform is to weave a network for Press Clubs, Foreign Correspondents’ Clubs, and International Press Centres all over the world so “they could interact, communicate and get access to information for their member journalists in an independent and free manner” (International Association of Press Clubs 2008 ).

The present members of the IAPC are: Dubai Press Club, Overseas Press Club of America, National Press Club of Australia, Berlin Press Club, Foreign Correspondent’s Club, Hong Kong, Geneva Press Club, International Press Club of Munich, London Press Club, Press Club de France, Singapore Press Club, Foreign Correspondents Association – Singapore, The Foreign Correspondent’s Club of South Asia, New Delhi and finally the European Federation of Press Clubs representing thirteen (13) European press clubs. In this way the main purpose of the IAPC is to foster dialogue, cooperation and an exchange of practical experience and ideas among all IAPC members. It also offers facilities and improves accessibility between IAPC members. The further objectives of IAPC are:

- (1) Upholding the ethics of journalism and free access and distribution of information in the spirit of prevailing constitutional charters, parliamentary resolutions and international conventions.
- (2) Broaden the availability of services and mutual advantages between IAPC members.
- (3) Develop and facilitate information exchange with political, economic, social and cultural institutions and with the world of communications across the world.
- (4) Set up links between with other Press Clubs and International Press Centres particularly via the Internet.
- (5) Promote the language and culture specific to the various member countries of the International Association of Press Clubs.

In this regard the Foreign Correspondents Press Club of Hong Kong reports that “Representatives of IAPC members met to discuss ways to increase the profile of the organization and promote cooperation among international press clubs. The organization resolved to explore ways to also promote the education of young journalists around the world(International Association of Press, 2008 ).

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However, despite the press club culture which has taken on an international status, the situation in Japan is entirely different. For the mainstream newspapers in Japan, the Kisha club (Japanese press club) system dominates the way news is gathered there. Therefore, there are two types of news conferences in Japan. First, official news conferences are presided over by government ministries and are open to any journalist. Second, unofficial conferences are organized by the Kisha Club itself. As officials are afraid of offending the Kisha Club, if sometimes when correspondents ask questions, 'they (officials) will say I'd like to answer that question, but I can't because we have not told that to the Kisha club yet. If we tell you first they 'would be annoyed' (Sample, 2002, pp. 23-26).

Finally, the point to be made here is that if studied deeply, the press club system in each country and region will almost certainly provide different contexts and forms of the aims and objectives regarding the functioning of press clubs. However, in essence the press club is a league of journalists who share various commonalities. The press club serves as a platform to bring together media people and those who have interest in media. Its objectives are to work for the welfare and betterment of journalists and their profession. In addition, the working relationship between press clubs and states has been observed with a critical eye by academics and intellectuals and even media itself. Press clubs are founded upon the base of constitutions which require all their members follow the discipline determined in the constitution. And with the passage of time the press club culture day by day is gathering international status. However, there is a need for this journalism related phenomenon to be deeply studied, particularly, to know its latent functions and objectives and how they effect the development and standard of journalism, particularly in third world countries.

### ***3.3.3 Press Club system in Sindh province***

In the context of Sindh province, there are press clubs in all twenty three (23) administrative districts. However, the trend of establishing press clubs has not remained limited just to the district level rather it has gone to sub-division levels. Therefore, in a majority of the sub-divisions in Sindh we can find press clubs. In Sindh, the press club is basically an association that consists of journalists who may be working for newspapers, magazines, news agencies, television channels and radio stations as reporters, photographers, cameramen, sub-editors and editors. These press clubs have been formed with the purpose not only to promote unity among journalists but also to

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facilitate their professional working. For example, it is very common in Sindh that member journalists visit their press clubs on a daily basis and utilize the available facilities at press clubs for performing their professional duty in the form of dispatching their news content to their respective media outlets. Moreover, it has also become common for members of the public in order to get the attention of media and bring to the notice of government their issues and problems to use the press clubs as platform or venue for public protest.

Moreover, press clubs adopt formal constitutions which specify the rules, regulations and ethics governing the various aspects of the smooth running of the clubs and which apply to all the member journalists. Further, it is significant to notice that according to some senior journalists and Sindh Government Information Officers, all the press clubs which have been established in district headquarter cities are officially registered, recognized and to some extent are funded by the government. However, the status and condition of those press clubs at sub-divisional level are not the same as district headquarter press clubs.

### **3.3.3.1 Structure of press clubs in Sindh**

#### **1: Membership categories**

Commonly in the press clubs of Sindh membership is awarded in two categories: General and Associate.

*(A). General Membership:* This category includes the working journalists of the media organizations both print and broadcast. The following are the supposed to criteria for general membership in the press clubs:

1. Any media person with some years working experience in any newspaper, news agency, magazine, radio or TV channel is entitled to be a member of the press club.
2. He/ She should submit a formal application for membership.
3. He/ She should pay monthly or annual membership fees.
4. He/ She should abide by the rules and regulations of the press club.
5. Membership will be terminated if: (a) He/ She violates the rules and regulations or constitution of the club. (b) He/ She does not pay his/her fees.

*(B). Associate Membership:* In this category those people are made members of the press clubs who are intellectuals, ministers and senior citizens. However associate members have no right either to vote or contest in the election of officers of the press clubs.

## 2: Management

Operation of the press clubs is overseen by an executive board elected by member journalists for a fixed term. Generally the executive body is comprised of the following: (a) The President, (b) Vice President, (c) Secretary, (d) Joint Secretary, (e) Treasurer and (f) executive members. In such body the working and status of Joint Secretary is after Secretary like Vice President after President. The overall management and control of a club is vested to its executive body. The president presides over the meetings of the executive body and he/she has the power to supervise the working of the secretary and other office bearers. However, the secretary is responsible for doing all the business of the club. He/She will be in-charge of all office management in the office and carry out official correspondence with all concerned parties on behalf of the club. The following (table 3.1) gives the membership statistics of all district headquarter press clubs in Sindh in 2008.

**Table 3.1 Membership of the District Press clubs in Sindh**

S.No.	Name of press club	Membership	S.No.	Name of press club	Membership
1.	Badin	22	13.	Mirpurkhas	22
2.	Dadu	10	14.	Naushehroferoze	23
3.	Ghotki	24	15.	Benazirabad	41
4.	Hyderabad	260	16.	Sanghar	21
5.	Jamshoro	16	17.	Shikarpur	23
6.	Jacobabad	30	18.	Sukkur	51
7.	Kambar	18	19.	Tando Allahyar	22
8.	Karachi	1100	20.	Tando M. Khan	35
9.	Kashmore	17	21.	Tharparkar	20
10.	Khairpur	30	21.	Thatta	24
11.	Larkana	30	23.	Umerkot	25
12.	Matari	17	<b>Total</b>		<b>1881</b>

### 3.3.3.2 Separate-Group Press Clubs in Sindh

Preliminary telephone interviews reveal that in some sub-divisional and district headquarter cities more than one press club is functioning. Though they (press clubs) may possibly be working in tandem and to some extent cooperating with each other, they nevertheless exist and function separately.

The main reasons for the development of these Separate-Group-Press-Clubs as expressed in preliminary interviews were that (1) when the incumbent officer bearers or executive bodies of the main press clubs (District Press Clubs) breach the press club constitutions and do not conduct press club elections at the end of the board's fixed term, particularly due to their personal interests or to establish a monopoly and

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dominance over the press clubs, then as a result conflicting, pressure or revolutionary groups develop among the member journalists of the main press clubs. (2) The second reason mentioned is that when those journalists who do not fulfil membership criteria are refused membership they form Separate-Group-Press-Clubs. However, it was stated by one Sindh Government Information Officer and a senior journalist during a preliminary telephone interview that such Separate-Group-Press-Clubs in the district headquarter cities are neither officially registered and recognized by the government nor are the members of such press clubs accredited by the Government District Information Office, nor can they avail themselves of those privileges which are enjoyed by member journalists of the main district headquarter press clubs. The membership figures for 2008 of five of five Separate-Group-Press-Clubs are given in table 3.2.

**Table 3.2 Membership of the Separate-Group Press Clubs in Five Districts of Sindh**

S. No	Name of press club	Membership figure
1.	District Badin Aiwan Sahafat Press Club	60
2.	District Dadu National Press Club	19
3.	District Khairpur National Press Club	12
4.	District Mirpurkhas National Press Club	17
5.	District Sanghar National Press Club	13
<b>Total</b>		<b>121</b>

### **3.3.3.3 Non-Member Journalists**

In addition to District Press Clubs (Main Press Clubs) and Separate-Group-Press-Clubs some journalists work independently without being a member of any press club. In one district (District Larkana), for example, there are about 44 journalists who are working for various media organizations, but are not members of a press club. It is likely that such journalists who are not members of any press club may also be working in other districts of Sindh. However, the exact number of such journalists who are not members of any press or journalistic organisations is not known.

## **3.4 Summary of the chapter**

Regarding news regulations and journalism cultures in Pakistan it was found that on the one hand the constitution of the country guarantees the right to freedom of speech and expression; however, on the other practically the military rulers and to some extent civil

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governments have been hard on the media in Pakistan. In addition, there are also some journalists who have engaged in flattering political leaders and sought to make themselves political power brokers.

Generally press clubs are organisations which facilitate both the social and professional development of journalists. Ideally, press clubs should remain non-political, but it is often hard for them to remain detached from the political influence. With the ever growing maturity of the profession of journalism press clubs have come together as an international forum particularly in the form of the International Association of Press Clubs (IAPC) since the year 2002. Finally press club culture in Sindh is firmly established; and no government either civil or dictatorial could afford to turn its back on them. Instead, every government has tried somehow to have a lever of influence on press clubs. Although, the press clubs in Sindh have constitutions to run and maintain discipline yet some differences among the Sindh journalists are found.

## 4 METHODOLOGY

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the research methodology for the study. It introduces the research questions and the research design which involves two techniques, a survey and focus groups discussions. The advantages, limitations and the rationale of the chosen research techniques will be explained. And to justify the two chosen research techniques population, location, sampling and sampling size for the survey and focus group discussions will be discussed in detail. The chapter also includes data collection methods for both survey and focus group discussions which define design and administration of the questionnaire, conduct of the pilot study, procedures, venues, and timing of data accumulation for the survey. In addition, the data collection instrument, number of focus group discussions, recruitment of focus group participants, moderator and his role, arrangement, implementation and recording of focus groups sessions will also be discussed. The techniques and justifications of the data analysis of survey and focus groups will be elaborated along with a discussion of the ethical issues involved in both survey and focus groups.

### 4.2 Research Questions

For this study a total of twelve (12) research questions were formulated. Many of these research questions were designed on the basis of the questions put to journalists in other studies. In this way seven research questions were designed for the survey research part and five research questions were developed for focus group discussions. The survey research questions were replicating of those journalistic studies conducted in other countries.

#### 4.2.1 Survey Research

1. *Research Question:* Demographic characteristics and work profile of the Sindh Journalists. How do these differ with those of other countries?
2. *Research Question:* What are the levels of job satisfaction, security, importance and commitment among Sindh journalists?
3. *Research Question:* How do Sindh journalists perceive the role of the media (rating various news media functions) and how do these role perceptions compare with those of other developing and developed countries?



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4. *Research Question:* What are the computer literacy and professional training backgrounds of the Sindh journalists?
5. *Research Question:* What are the political affiliations, ideologies and professional attitudes, beliefs, values of the Sindh journalists and how do these differ from those in other countries?
6. *Research Question:* What is the media consumption attitude and perception regarding the credibility and consumption of the media of the Sindh journalists?
7. *Research Question:* What are the levels of media freedom and professional autonomy of the Sindh journalists, and to what extent do the Sindh journalists consider the various influential factors – personal values, organisation policy and government media laws – in their journalistic work?

### **4.2.2 Focus Group Discussions**

8. *Research Question:* What is the attitude of state towards the media and the Sindh journalists?
9. *Research Question:* What tools does the state commonly apply to restrain the news media, in the perception of the Sindh journalists?
10. *Research Question:* What are the physical security conditions of the Sindh journalists?
11. *Research Question:* What is the role of the media organizations and journalistic organisations/press clubs in the professional development of the Sindh journalists?
12. *Research Question:* What are the reasons of factionalism among Sindh journalists?

## **4.3 Research Design**

This study, for the most part, is replication of earlier conducted journalistic studies which have been conducted through survey method. However, some of the research questions of this study were new and different in nature than of those of other journalistic studies. So, considering these points and the research questions of this study the research design was conceived as combination of survey and focus groups methods of data collection.

### **4.3.1 Survey method in media research**

Using survey method in mass communication research is not a new idea (Muler & Cannell, 1977). This ‘method continues to be of central importance in communication research’ (A. Hansen, Cottle, Negrine, Newbold, & Halloran, 1998, p. 6). The most

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publicized research work of society that we interact with in the mass media is surveys, that present statistics, and such surveys are popular since they have the credibility of appearing scientific (Machin, 2002). In America particularly adds Machin (2002) ‘the survey has dominated communications research’ (Machin, 2002, p. 5). According to Gunter surveys have become a prominent feature of media research and behavioural phenomena are quantified and measured numerically by the methodological tool of the survey (Gunter, 2000).

### **Rationale for Employing Survey Method for This Study**

To study the population of Sindh journalists in this study their current opinions and attitudes were required. Therefore survey method was appropriate for the collection of data for this study. Because, as a research tool survey is used to gather empirical data from a population of respondents about existing or changing patterns of behaviour. The second reason which made survey suitable for this study is, because in this study a large population of the Sindh journalists was required to be included as a sample. Hence, according to Hansen et al. (1998), survey method offers scholars a way to obtain a substantial quantity of information from a large number of people rapidly and at a comparatively little expenditure per individual. Additionally, add Hansen et al. (ibid) once a survey carried out appropriately, scholars feel confident that their statements, public attitudes, public opinions are founded upon data collected from a large number of people (Hansen et al., 1998). Thirdly, in this study the subjects involved were human beings (journalists), and that point made the survey technique an appropriate chosen research method because survey deals with people, and Adams (1989) in this regard suggests that when the focus of the investigation is specifically personal thoughts, emotional states, and actions, the only way to study them is by asking those subjects whose behaviours, thoughts, and feelings are of interest to say what they think and feel (Adams, 1989). Similarly, Weisberg et al. (1996) also add that surveys are usually used, when it is required to assess attitudes (or preferences), beliefs (including predictions and assessments of importance), or facts (including past behavioural experiences) (Weisberg, Krosnick, & Bowen, 1996), therefore, so was the case in this study as attitudes and beliefs of the journalists about different variables were required to be recorded or accumulated for measurement. Fourth point to justify survey method, as it was also among the purposes of the study to assess the demographic characteristics, and attitudes of the respondents about political leanings and various other variables, so

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regarding this Weaver (2008) suggests that in case the aim of research is to analyze various personal characteristics like age, gender, education, income or attitudes about different issues of a large group of journalists, then survey should be the chosen research method (Weaver, 2008). Survey is suitable for this study, also because of the reason that the study aimed to generalize the findings over a whole population of the journalists in Sindh which required contemporary opinions and attitudes of the representative sample of the Sindh journalists. So Berger (2000) in this regard says that survey research method is used to collect data regarding certain groups of the public who are representative of some big group of people of interest to the scholars (A. A. Berger, 2000), and according to Wimmer & Dominick (2005) survey documents current conditions or attitudes - that is, to explicate what exists at the moment – and to ascertain the present state of affairs in the area under investigation (Wimmer & Dominick, 2005). Finally, as one of the purposes of doing this study was to compare the findings of this study about Sindh journalists with the findings of those journalistic studies which were carried out in other countries by having applied survey method. Therefore, survey method was chosen to collect data which enabled the comparison, between Sindh journalists and those working in other countries, more appropriate due to having applied a similar method of data collection – survey method.

### **4.3.2 Focus Group Discussions**

In this study, the focus group discussions were also employed to collect qualitative data for answering the research questions of such a nature which were not possible through a survey. Because Weaver (2008) points out that ‘surveys are stronger for assessing basic characteristics and opinions or attitudes than for measuring behavior’, and survey has many disadvantages compared with other methods to study journalists, and one of them is with ‘the measurement of actual journalistic behaviour’ (D. Weaver, 2008, p. 107). So instead of survey according to Wimmer & Dominick (2005) focus group is a research strategy for not only understanding audience and attitudes but also behaviour (Wimmer & Dominick, 2005). Because, the goal of a focus group is eliciting participants’ feelings, attitudes and perceptions about a selected topic (Puchta & Potter, 2004).

### **Rationale for Using Focus Groups for This Study**

In view of the nature of some of the research questions in this study, which require qualitative data to be answered, the focus groups research technique was justified to be

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combined with the survey in the research design of this study. More frequently the focus group approach has been used in conjunction with other types of data collection. As in media research, it has notably been used together with questionnaires (A. S. Hansen & Newbold, 1998). In addition to the requirement of the nature of some research questions in this study, the data collection method of focus group was combined to collect qualitative data because Neuman (2000, pp. 124-125) suggests that it is better to look at something from several angles; and among its several methods one method used is mixing qualitative and quantitative styles of research and data.

Moreover the survey served a primary means for data collection and to conduct focus group discussions with journalists in Sindh province was determined as a supplementary technique. Such a combination of different research techniques also has support from Yates (2004, p. 171) who mentioned that “very often they (focus groups) are used as the ‘qualitative element’ within a larger ‘quantitative’ study such as a survey”. And according to Morgan (1988, p. 10) focus groups are useful as a supplement to both quantitative and other qualitative methods. Morgan (1988, p. 39) also concludes that focus groups are especially valuable in combination with other techniques.

### **4.4 Population and location**

#### **4.4.1 Population**

The targeted population of this study can be defined as “all working journalists in Sindh”, who possibly are involved in the profession of journalism either full-time or part-time and in either privately-owned or state-run media outlets. They might be rendering their services as reporters, correspondents, editors, sub-editors, or stringers for any type of media organization, particularly daily newspapers, magazines, radio and television channels which publish and broadcast news in Sindhi, Urdu and English languages in Pakistan.

#### **4.4.2 Location**

The location of this study is the whole geographic area of Sindh which was during the period of data collection administratively distributed into twenty three (23) districts. The further distribution of these districts stands as eighteen (18) towns in the capital district of Sindh, Karachi, and one hundred and three (103) sub-divisions in the other twenty two (22) districts of Sindh province. In this way they total one hundred and

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twenty one (121) regions (sub-divisions and towns) covering the whole of the province (Local Government Department Sindh province, 2008). In this way out of this total of one hundred and twenty one (121) administrative regions the following twenty three (23) regions, Badin, Dadu, Ghotki, Hyderabad, Jamshoro, Jacobabad, Shahdadt@Kamber, Karachi, Kashmore@Khandhkot, Larkana, Matiari, Mirpurkhas, Naushehroferoze, Benazirabad, Sanghar, Shikarpur, Sukkur, Tando Allahyar, Tando M. Khan, Tharparkar, Thatta, Umerkot were purposively selected for the data collection of this study.

The main reasons for selecting these twenty three regions for data collection were as follows: (1) First, all twenty three (23) purposively selected regions are district headquarter cities. (2) Second, in all these regions (district headquarter cities) there are district press clubs for journalists. (3) Third, when some senior journalists and District Information Officers in Sindh Government were asked and discussed with about the district press clubs in Sindh then they mentioned that the press clubs which are established in the district headquarter cities of Sindh are officially recognized and registered by the government of Sindh.

### **4.5 Sampling and sample size**

#### **4.5.1 Survey**

A complete list of total number of journalists in Sindh was not available. Hence, this situation caused the researcher to apply a purposive sampling technique. Because Singleton & Straits (1999) suggest that ‘In situations that preclude random selection, purposive sampling is an acceptable alternative (Singleton & Straits, 1999, p. 159). Therefore, to select the sample of the journalists for undertaking a survey a two stage purposive sampling plan described below was designed.

#### **First stage: Geographical Division of the Population**

According to the official website of the Local Government Department, Government of Sindh, Pakistan, the administrative division of Sindh province has been made into eighteen (18) towns in the capital district of Sindh province i.e. Karachi and one hundred and three (103) sub-divisions in the rest twenty two (22) districts of the province that is totalling one hundred twenty one (121) geographic regions (towns and sub-divisions). Therefore, following this official administrative division of Sindh province the whole population of this research study that is, journalists (reporters,

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correspondents, editors, sub-editors and stringers), working in daily newspapers, magazines, radio and television channels published and broadcast in Sindhi, Urdu and English language was geographically divided into one and hundred twenty one (121) regions (towns and sub-divisions).

### **Second stage: Purposive selection of the regions (towns and sub-districts)**

To arrive at the survey sample, twenty three (23) out of one hundred twenty one (121) geographic regions (towns and sub-divisions) in Sindh province were purposively chosen to frame the survey sample of this study. The reasons for selecting these twenty three regions for primary data collection were as follows:

- (1) First, all twenty three (23) purposively selected regions are district headquarter cities. Therefore the main bureaucracy or government administrative offices to run and control the official matters of all sub-divisions of each district lie in the headquarter city of those districts. In other words due to being the centre of all official administrative matters the district headquarter city remains more developed and populated city compared with other cities, town or sub-divisions of that district.
- (2) Second, in all regions (district headquarter cities) there are district press clubs which were considered as a primary sampling units for this study to collect data from journalists.
- (3) Third, according to some senior journalists and Information Officers of Sindh Information Department Government of Sindh, the press clubs which are in the district headquarter cities are recognized by the government and other organizations.
- (4) The fourth reason for selecting purposively to these 23 geographical regions (District Headquarter Cities) is that, because, it is not possible for the researcher to include and cover all the one hundred and twenty one (121) regions (sub-divisions and towns) in the sample for data collection, particularly due to time and finance constraints though the news is reported from almost all regions (sub-districts and towns).

Finally, the number of total units (journalists) to be included in the sample for the survey study was determined by having as many journalists as possible involved. This was decided, keeping in view that 'a large sample is more representative' (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Kagee, 2006, p. 107), and further, the bigger the sample size, the more possibility there is of representing all the different characteristics of the population. In addition, not only are the conclusions reached from the study of a large sample more convincing (Walliman, 2006) but also as sample size increases, sample error decreases

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(Bryman, 2001). Moreover, for maintaining the reliability of the sample as representative of the whole universe it was required to give an equal chance to each of the populations of the selected twenty three (23) basic sampling units (district press clubs) of becoming selected in the sample. Because Miller says that it is a compulsory demand of any sample that it must be as representative as possible of the general population (Miller, 2002).

### **4.5.2 Focus Group Discussions**

To arrive at the sample for collecting the qualitative data of this study in descriptive form the purposive sampling technique was applied, because according to Hansen et al. (1998) in focus groups the persons who are invited to participate must be able and willing to provide the required information (A. Hansen et al., 1998). Therefore, taking into consideration the nature of the focus group technique and population of this study, out of a total of twenty three (23) six (06) District Press clubs namely District Press Club Karachi, District Press Club Hyderabad, District Press Club Thatta, District Press Club Larkana, District Press Club Sukkur and District Press Club Khairpur were purposively chosen to conduct the focus group discussions. The reasons for selecting the above mentioned, district headquarter press clubs as follows:

- (1) First, compared to all other (un-selected) seventeen (17) district headquarter press clubs the membership figure of journalists in these purposively selected district headquarter press clubs was comparatively larger. Therefore, it was easier to arrange the required number and select the articulate journalists for focus group discussions in the purposively selected districts.
- (2) Due to personal contacts of the researcher with some journalists the researcher had more access to the journalists working in these purposively selected district press clubs. And it proved very helpful for the researcher to manage and arrange the conducting of focus group discussions with journalists in these regions.

Finally, regarding the number of focus group discussions it was determined to conduct at least six focus group discussions, because according to Hansen et al. (1998) 'it would be difficult to justify fewer than six groups' (A. Hansen et al., 1998, p. 268). And about the number of participants in each group, though it was attempted to arrange at least six participants for each focus group, because Morgan (1998, p. 1) supports to 'six to eight participants in each group', however, in practice on average five (5) participants could be arranged for each of the six focus group discussions.

### 4.6 Data collection

#### 4.6.1 Survey

##### 4.6.1.1 Designing the Questionnaire

To extract primary information from the sample of respondents, a fully structured self-completion data collection instrument was designed based on the objectives of the study which contained mostly close-ended questions. The most significant reason for applying a questionnaire was that it was the tool of choice used to collect primary data in studies of journalists in other developed and developing countries. See, for example, Weaver (1998), Ramaprasad and Rahman (2006). Moreover based on the nature of research questions in the survey the questionnaire was categorized in the following seven sections:

**Section 1:** Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the Sindh journalists:

This section contained a total of nine (9) questions; except for one all the questions were aimed to measure the personal characteristics of the journalists. In this way the variables measured through this section are: gender, age, mother tongue, religion, monthly income, level of education, the final institute attended for education and the mode of education sought – as a private student or regular students. Additionally, the last question in this section was open-ended which aimed to elicit the objectives or reasons why respondents became journalists.

**Section 2:** Current employment of the journalists:

Under this section there were a total of eleven questions (11) all relevant to the current employment of the journalists. The variables investigated under this section were the district area the journalist worked from, seniority in journalism, job title, the media organisation type, the media organisation ownership type, language of the media organisation, preference and reasons for preferring to work in the English media, job satisfaction, professional commitment, job importance and job security.

**Section 3:** Professional training of the journalists:

Under this section a total of eight questions relevant to professional training were posed. The variables investigated by this section were computer training, use of computer in journalistic work, pre-job training, period of pre-job training, on-the-job training, frequency of on-the-job training, need for further training, and preferred areas of training.



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### **Section 4:** Consumption and views on news media in Pakistan by journalists:

This section contained a total of eight questions (08) about the media consumption attitude of the journalists and their perceptions of various aspects of the news media in Pakistan. The variables investigated under this section were the news media consumption attitude, media freedom, professional autonomy, media credibility, widely consumed media and the factors which influence journalistic objectivity in Sindh.

### **Section 5:** Politics affiliated profile of the journalists:

Under this section a total of six (06) questions which were relevant to the political affiliation of the journalists were put. The variables investigated in this section were affiliation with political parties, nature of affiliation with political parties, vote registration of the journalists, the vote-casting attitude of the journalists, and the political ideology of the journalists.

### **Section 6:** Functions of news media in the perception of journalists:

This section has one question containing 13-items regarding various roles supposed to be played by media in the society. In this way the variables investigated under this section are all relevant to the different roles of the media.

### **Section 7:** Accreditation and press affiliation of the journalists:

This section has six (06) questions relevant to the press club and accreditation of the journalists. The variables investigated by this section were press club membership, the concept of the press club, the information/news sharing with the press club colleagues, accreditation card holding, the fairness of awarding accreditation by the government and the membership rejection at press clubs.

#### **4.6.1.2 Administering the Questionnaire**

##### **Training Research Assistants**

To make the sample representative of the population it was considered to accumulate data from as many respondents as possible. Therefore, the recruitment of the research assistants was inevitable to collect data from Districts Karachi and District Hyderabad which are not only the largest cities but also media cities of Sindh. These media cities not only accommodate press clubs but also a great number of newspaper offices, television channels, and news agencies. Therefore, volunteer research assistants were recruited for collecting data from these two media cities of Sindh. The research assistants recruited were young journalists working in various print and broadcast media outlets and news agencies, therefore themselves respondents of this study.

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In this way in the beginning the research assistant were asked to fill in the questionnaire themselves; then they were given the necessary instructions and an explanation of research ethics, and then were asked to administer the questionnaire among their colleagues in media outlets of Districts Karachi and Hyderabad where they worked as journalist. In addition, in those media organizations where the researcher did not have any friend working as a journalist, he visited them personally and had a meeting with the editor or news editor to brief them and get permission to distribute the questionnaires among the journalists in those media organisations for collecting at the same time or in some cases one, or two days after.

### **Pilot Study**

A pilot study was undertaken with the journalists of the District Press Club Jamshoro which was also one of the basic sampling units of this study. The pilot study was arranged with the help of one journalist who himself was a member of District Press Club Jamshoro where the pilot study was conducted. And before the conduct of pilot study the office-bearers of the press club were briefed about the aims and objectives of the study.

The questionnaire was administered to 13 journalists who made their availability at the press club one after another during a visit and presence of the researcher. One office-bearer of the press club told that the total membership of that press club consisted of 18 journalists. Moreover, the journalists were well briefed about the objectives and importance of the study and while filling in the questionnaire whenever and wherever the journalists got confused or wanted clarification of any question the researcher explained those points. In this way the researcher during the conduct of the pilot study kept observing and testing the comprehensibility and workability of the questionnaire and jotted down observational notes and questions or points which were asked by the participants. Then in the light of those observational notes and points which were asked by the participants of the pilot study some necessary changes particularly in the wording of some questions were made for the further administering of the questionnaire.

### **Data Accumulation**

As survey research is used to gather primary data from the field, and since in this case the area of the field was geographically vast covering 1, 40,915 square kms and was almost as large as England (Government of Sindh Website 2011). Therefore to facilitate the data collection process the researcher divided to the total twenty three (23)

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administrative districts of Sindh into four geographic bases respectively namely District Hyderabad, District Larkana, District Khairpur and District Karachi. The reasons to choose these four districts as main bases of data collection were to make the stay and travelling to the rest of districts easier and feasible. The description of data collection process about each base follows as:

**BASE 1- Hyderabad city:** The researcher made Hyderabad his first base and covered the following sample units respectively: District Press Club Jamshoro, District Press Club Matiari, District Press Club Tando Muhammad Khan, District Press Club Tando Allahyar, District Press Club Badin, District Press Club Mirpurkhas, District Press Club Umerkot, District Press Club Tharparkar, District Press Club Sanghar, District Press Club Thatta, District Press Club Shaheed Benazir Bhutto and District Press Club Hyderabad. Among above the district press clubs of Tando Allahyar, Badin, Thatta, Shaheed Benazir Bhutto and District Sangher were visited two times each. Whereas, in Hyderabad which is the second largest city of Sindh and the residence of researcher, it took about three weeks to collect the data due to having so many media outlets. Some of the media outlets in Hyderabad city which the researcher himself covered for data collection were visited more than one time, because, some respondents asked to the researcher to collect the filled questionnaires from them on other day or so. In addition, in Hyderabad three (3) research assistants were also recruited for data collection, and those research assistants were not only graduates from Mass communication department at University of Sindh, Jamshoro, Pakistan but also they were working journalists as one of them worked in news agency, second in newsroom of one Sindhi language newspaper and third in newsroom of a TV channel. Finally among above districts covered under the first base the least response rate (2 respondents) was received from District Press Club Tharparkar which was, in the regard of distance, the farthest district from Hyderabad city and bordering with India.

**BASE 2- Larkana city:** Having collected data from the above mentioned districts the researcher moved to Larkana city, and made it his second base. Staying in Larkana city the researcher could cover the following basic sampling units District Press Club Larkana, District Press Club Shahdadkot@Kumber, District Press Club Dadu, District Press Club Shikarpur, District Press Club Khandkot and District Press Club Jacobabad. Because having made the Larkana city as second base it became more accessible geographically for the researcher to travel and collect the data from above mentioned district press clubs. Among above press clubs the district press club Shikarpur was

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visited two times. In addition, from District Press Club Jacobabad, which was farthest in context of distance, no response was received. The main reason of not getting response was lack of trust by the office-bearers of the press club. The office-bearers of District Press Club Jacobabad said to the researcher for leaving questionnaires at press club which they will distribute themselves among the member journalists of the District Jacobabad Press Club and then dispatch by post to the researcher. However, despite many follow-ups they did not dispatch any questionnaire.

**BASE 3- Khairpur city:** Khairpur city was made third base, because, while staying in this city it was comparatively easy to visit the remaining districts in the rural Sindh. In this way, while staying in Khairpur the basic sampling units covered were District Press Club Khairpur, District Press Club Naushehferoze, District Press Club Sukkur, and District Press Club Ghotki. Among above the District Press Club Sukkur was visited two times.

**BASE 4- Karachi city:** Karachi the first largest and media city of Sindh was made fourth base for data collection. In Karachi the researcher had a meeting with his journalist friends who were working in English, Sindhi and Urdu language newspapers, TV channels and news agencies and briefed them about the aims and objectives of the research. The researcher then asked them to fill in the questionnaires because being working journalists they were also respondents of the study. In this way having made the journalist friends to go through the process of filling questionnaire then after the researcher recruited to those journalist friends as volunteer research assistants and imparted them the necessary instructions about the ethical issues and comprehensibility of the questionnaire that they required as research assistants for administering the questionnaires among their journalist colleagues in their respective media outlets. The instructions regarding research ethics given to the research assistants included that while delivering the questionnaires the participants should be informed about the aims and objectives of the research, that the participation of the respondents is voluntary, that the respondents can leave to participate any time and even they have right to refuse from participating.

Additionally, the media organizations where the researcher had not any journalist friend were visited by the researcher himself. And the procedure of data collection in those remained that first having met with the editor or news editor of those organisations, then the researcher or news editor distributed the questionnaires among journalists of those media organisations. In this way it took the researcher about two

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weeks to collect data from Karachi and during that period the researcher also made many visits to District Press Club Karachi and got some respondents from there as well. The total number of research assistants recruited in Karachi was eight (8). Among them six research assistants were not only working journalists but also graduates of Mass communication department at University of Sindh, Jamshoro, Pakistan.

To end, in this whole process of data collection the researcher on average could cover two districts in a week, except to the cities of Karachi and Hyderabad which are respectively the first and second largest cities and the media cities of Sindh. And the mode of travelling to visit all the districts was leaving home in the morning and returning at night. In addition for going to all the district press clubs in Sindh public transport – coaches, buses and vans – was used by the researcher. The average time spent at each district press club was 4 hours. Lastly, this is also significant to notify that in some districts there were more than one press clubs, one district press club with the name of that city and other press club in the same city was established by those journalists who had differences with members of district press clubs. Therefore, the researcher visited to both press clubs and included to the journalists of press clubs in the sample of study.

### **Method of Data Collection: Supervised Self-completion Questionnaire**

In the context of population and sample of this study the most preferable and possible technique of data collection was supervised self-completion of the questionnaire. Hence, the researcher employed the supervised self-completion questionnaire technique for the collection of primary data for this study; therefore, the self-completion structured questionnaires were delivered personally by the researcher and research assistants to the respondents individually and in group settings as well. And this technique worked very well, because, in the personal delivery the researcher and research assistant were able to help respondents to overcome difficulties with the questions. Additionally, in some cases the researcher left questionnaires at press clubs for those journalists who were not available during the visit of the researcher. In this way some numbers of filled questionnaires were also dispatched by the office-bearers of the respective district press clubs to the researcher. However, significant to notice, for the purpose of any necessary guidance of the respondents the concerned office-bearers of those press clubs were also trained by the researcher.

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### **Venue for the Data Gathering**

The researcher and research assistants approached the journalists personally to distribute the structured self-completion questionnaires among them at possible convenient places which were press club offices and media organizations. However, as a second option those journalists who could not be accessed at working places were approached at their homes as well, but, before approaching the journalists at their working places (district headquarter press clubs, and media organizations) a well-established co-ordination was developed in advance by the researcher with the concerned office-bearers of the purposively selected district headquarter press clubs and media organisations. And no doubt without such co-ordination the received response rate was hard to achieve.

### **Time of the Day for Data Collection**

On the basis of personal observation and knowledge about the journalism culture in Sindh the researcher was well-aware of the time when the journalists could be approached for the purpose of primary data collection. Therefore, in that context the respondents were approached during the afternoon and evening timings, because according to the nature of the work of the journalism profession in Sindh it was most likely that during the afternoon and evening timings the journalists would be available at press clubs and media outlets, hence, they were more easily accessible. So, while visiting the various press clubs of Sindh it was observed that on average the majority of journalists started to arrive at press clubs after 12.00 pm., whereas as far as media organisations are concerned the working of newspapers conventionally started after 4.00 pm except to those papers which are published during the day, and their news staff arrived to work at morning. Additionally, the TV channels broadcast news and programmes round the hour, therefore, TV channels had staff in two or three shifts.

### **Checking the Completed Questionnaires**

During the data collection process at each district headquarter press club the researcher personally was present to guide the respondents in case they felt need of explanation regarding any question in the questionnaire. Further, when the questionnaires were filled they were checked again by the researcher to be certain that they had been filled in completely and in all sections.

### **4.6.2 Focus Groups**

#### **4.6.2.1 Data Collection Instrument**

The data collection instrument for focus groups contained a pre-determined agenda: which was used in each and all discussions allowing the focus group participants to talk about the agenda as they wished while a moderator kept seeking to elicit and measure the arguments, views and responses of the participants. However, the questions on the agenda were formulated as loose, broad and much more flexible, because due to such formulation the discussion may also suggest additional topics of inquiry to be pursued (Alreck & Settle, 1995, p. 397). In this way the detailed break-up of focus group discussions' instrument which was structured into five sections or questions were as follows:

##### **Section 1: Attitude of State towards News Media**

This section contains one question/topic which aimed to elicit the participants' views about the general attitude of governments regarding the news media in Sindh.

##### **Section 2: Tools of State to Restrain the News Media**

This section contains one question/topic which let the participants discuss the means which are applied by state or government to control the news media/journalism.

##### **Section 3: Security Conditions in which Journalists Perform their Duties**

This section contains one question/topic which sought the perceptions of participants regarding the overall prevailing security conditions under which they were working.

##### **Section 4: Role of Media Organizations and Press Clubs in the Professional Development of Sindh Journalists**

This section contains a one question/topic to be discussed by the participants for assessing the role played by the media organizations and press clubs in the professional development of journalists.

##### **Section 5: Reasons behind rifts among journalists in Sindh**

This section contains a one question/topic to be discussed by the participants. The aim of this topic was to know the reasons of differences among journalists and why they were divided into groups, almost in all districts of Sindh. Because it is found that almost in all districts of Sindh journalists are divided into two or more than two groups. Therefore, in some districts there were two press clubs.

### **4.6.2.2 Conducting Focus Groups**

#### **Number of Groups and participant recruitment**

As mentioned earlier to collect qualitative data for this study it was determined to conduct at least six focus groups and the number of participants in each group was a minimum of four to maximum six. Moreover, the recruitment of the participants was made with the co-ordination and consultation of officer-bearer of the press club or senior journalist of the concerned press clubs. The selection of the participants was determined keeping in mind that on the one hand all participants belong to different media outlets and on the other that they must be willing and articulate in their views. In this way the selected participants were invited by the concerned press club office-bearer or senior journalist to come together at the specified time and venue in each district. The timing of all the focus group discussions was fixed at evening. Out of a total of six the three focus groups discussions were arranged at the press clubs of the concerned districts, two at district bureau offices of media organisations and one at regional office of news agency.

#### **The moderator and his role**

The researcher played the role of moderator in each of the six focus groups of this study by asking pre-determined questions, and the participants discussed particular topics under his directions. Moreover, the average duration of each focus group discussion was more than fifty minutes; therefore, the moderator kept developing a supportive environment and encouraged the participants to come up with their opinions and point of views regarding the topics.

#### **Arrangement and Implementation of the Focus Group Sessions**

The focus group sessions were arranged with the cooperation of the office-bearer or senior journalist of the concerned press club. The focus group discussions began with an introduction by the moderator which had three sections: 1. Welcome statement. 2. A brief overview of the subject matter to be covered. 3. An explanation of the discussion rules. See table 4.1 for further details about the time, location and number of participants in each focus group discussion.



**Table 4.1 Time, location, duration and number of participants in focus group discussions**

Sampling Unit	Date and time	Venue	Participants	Duration
District Karachi	06-4-2009-6:00 pm	District press club Karachi	05	59:34
District Sukkur	11-4-2009-1:00 pm	Office Daily Ibrat newspaper	05	47:39
District Khairpur	11-4-2009-6:00 pm	Office Sindh TV channel	06	46:52
District Larkana	12-4-2009-1:00 pm	District press club Larkana	04	50:28
District Hyderabad	13-4-2009-9:00 pm	Office APP news agency	06	01:15
District Thatta	14-4-2009-5:00 pm	District press club Thatta	04	57:49

### **Recording the Focus Group Data**

As it is agreed that the principal data produced by focus groups are the verbal responses, statements, opinions, arguments and interactions of the participants (A. S. Hansen & Newbold, 1998, pp. 276-277), therefore, taking into consideration the nature of the data, all the focus group sessions were audio-recorded, because, this is the most simple and inexpensive method and it can be transcribed verbatim or condensed into brief, written reports (Alreck & Settle, 1995, p. 404). In addition, audio-recording is the most common way of making the focus group conversations analyzable (Morgan, 1998, p. 56).

## **4.7 Analyses of Data**

### **4.7.1 Survey Data**

The analysis of survey data was conducted by using computer software Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0. and 18.0. In the context of statistical tests:

1. Independent-sample t-test have been used which is suitable while ‘comparing the mean score, on some continuous variables, for two different groups of subjects’(Pallant, 2007).
2. Mann-Whitney test has been run which is a non-parametric test used in preference to the equivalent *t*-test in case data are on ordinal level of measurement (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2003).
3. ANOVA test has been applied which is designed for the analysis of data with three or more groups or conditions (Kinnear & Gray, 2009).
4. Kruskal-Wallis Test has been run which is a non-parametric alternative to a one-way ANOVA. It is similar in nature to the Mann-Whiney U test, however, allowing the comparison of more than two groups(Pallant, 2007).

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5. A chi-square test of association has been run which is used to determine whether or not two variables measured on nominal or categorical scales are associated with each other (Colman, Briony, & Rod, 2008).
6. Factor Analysis was run as this technique is applied 'for analysing the correlations between a number of variables in order to reduce them to a smaller number of underlying dimensions called factors and to determine the correlation of each of the original variables with each factor' (Colman et al., 2008).

### ***Significance Level***

Finally for all the analyses of the survey data, the statistical significance was fixed at 0.05 level. Because conventionally this level of statistical significance has been observed to be followed by the majority of researchers who use the make of statistics.

### ***4.7.2 Focus Group Discussion Data***

According to their nature 'the fundamental data that focus groups produce are transcripts of the group discussions' (Morgan, 1988, p. 10), and the results of focus groups are expressed verbally and qualitatively. Therefore, the analysis of focus group data involves the researcher's subjective process of making sense of what was discussed in the groups. In this way a final written report of the focus group data has been put together and discussed under the major themes and research questions that took place across the full set of groups including a description of the number of sessions and participants, and in addition the date, time, and place of the sessions.

## **4.8 Statement of Ethical Issues**

### ***4.8.1 Survey Research***

All the survey respondents of the study were treated ethically and respectfully during all phases of the data collection process. At the beginning of the questionnaire the introductory statement describing the nature and objectives of this survey study was included. The introductory statement contained some indications of the value and potential benefits of the study. More significantly, the participants were free to withdraw their participation at any time even during the filling out of the questionnaire. In this way their participation was informed, willing and absolutely voluntary. In addition to written statement in the beginning of the questionnaires the respondents were also verbally informed regarding their right to withdraw any time from the

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participation, about the aims and objectives of the study, and potential benefits of the study. It was also mentioned to the respondents that their answers would be kept confidential and would not be identified individually in reporting of the data.

### **4.8.2 *Focus Group Discussion***

In consideration of the ethical aspects once the participants were chosen, they were informed in general terms what the purpose of the focus group discussions was and where and how they would be conducted, with whom and who the researcher was and what they represent. In addition, the participants were also told that the discussions would be audio-taped, and they were made reassured that where necessary the confidential and unknown use of the focus group data would be made.

### **4.9 Summary of the chapter**

Overall the chapter mentioned that total twelve research questions have been constructed. Among them seven were in the survey and the remaining five were specified in the focus group discussions. The research design of the study is based upon the cross sectional survey and focus group discussions. The survey method was chosen due to its central importance in communication research, its popularity and credibility of appearing scientific, and its successful use in the conduct of journalistic studies. Moreover, the selection of focus group discussions was made due to the nature of research questions and gaining a deeper understanding of the participants. The population of the study consisted of respondents from the entire Sindh which is administratively distributed into twenty three districts. The purposive sampling design was employed for the collection of survey and focus group discussions data. As research instrument for the survey a pre-determined closed-ended questionnaire was implemented among the journalists in twenty three district press clubs and for focus group discussions also a pre-determined open-ended questionnaire/agenda was constructed.

## **5 DEMOGRAPHICS AND WORK-BACKGROUND OF THE SINDH JOURNALISTS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings regarding the demographic characteristics and work-related background of Sindh journalists on the basis of survey conducted on 576 working journalists in Sindh. The chapter further describes sample size and geographic distribution of the Sindh journalists who participated in the survey. First, the elements in the demographic characteristics include gender and age composition, ethnic origin and religion, income and education of the Sindh journalists. Second, the elements of the work background of the Sindh journalists include job title identification, job seniority, organisational affiliation, language of the journalists' media organisations, preference of the journalists for English media, journalists working for private and state-run media, mode of working, and status of job tenures of state-run media journalists.

### **5.2 Demographic and Socio-economic Profiles**

#### **5.2.1 *Sample size and Geographic Distribution of the Sindh journalists***

##### **Sample size**

The survey data for this study was collected from all 23 districts of the Sindh province in Pakistan, and altogether, 580 completed questionnaires were returned. Of these, two had been completed by cameramen, one by a photographer and one by a freelance journalist; Those four were excluded from the analysis, because, they did not meet the operational definition of journalist set for this study which says that journalists must be actively involved in both news reporting and writing and editing. Hence, the usable number of questionnaires stood at 576.

##### **Geographic distribution**

The largest proportion of the respondents (42.6%) (See table 5.1) were from two districts, namely Karachi (22.6%) and Hyderabad (20.0%). The three smallest proportions of the respondents came from the districts of Tharparkar (0.3%), Kamber@Shahdadt (1.0%) and Umerkot (1.4%); no responses were received from the district of Jacobabad. The most significant implication of this is that media manpower is mainly concentrated in two districts, Karachi and Hyderabad, which are the most developed, densely populated, and the centres of commerce and trade.

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Moreover, of these two districts, one (Karachi) is the capital city of Sindh, and the other, Hyderabad, enjoyed the status of being capital of Sindh, albeit centuries ago. Therefore journalists working from these two districts have been labelled ‘urban journalists’ in this study. In contrast, the three districts with the smallest numbers of respondents are located in the weakest, most backward areas of Sindh, both economically and educationally.

**Table 5.1 Geographic Breakdown of the Survey Respondents**

S.No	Name of District	Number	Percentage (%)
1	Badin	27	(4.7)
2	Dadu	15	(2.6)
3	Ghotki	13	(2.3)
4	Hyderabad	115	(20.0)
5	Jamshoro	18	(3.1)
6	Jacobabad	0	(0.0)
7	KamberShahdadkot	6	(1.0)
8	Karachi	130	(22.6)
9	Khairpur	16	(2.8)
10	KashmoreKandhkot	16	(2.8)
11	Larkana	20	(3.5)
12	Matari	13	(2.3)
13	Mirpurkhas	23	(4.0)
14	Benazirabad	14	(2.4)
15	Naushehro Feroz	20	(3.5)
16	Sukkur	29	(5.0)
17	Sanghar	28	(4.9)
18	Shikarpur	15	(2.6)
19	Thatta	21	(3.6)
20	Tando M. Khan	10	(1.7)
21	Tando-Allahyar	17	(3.0)
22	Tharparkar	2	(.3)
23	Umerkot	8	(1.4)
<b>Total</b>		<b>576</b>	<b>(100)</b>

This recalls the observation of Johnstone, Slawski et al. (1976, p. 20) in their study of American journalists that “Both economic rationality and historical impetus can cause industries to become concentrated within specific geographic regions”. Therefore, Karachi and Hyderabad seem to be the media capitals of Sindh. Moreover, ‘the affairs of government rather than of business and finance are the basic natural resource of journalism’ (Johnstone et al., 1976, p. 20). And these two cities Karachi and

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Hyderabad have also, traditionally, been centres of government affairs as well due to their status of being capital cities of Sindh, the first currently and the second in the past. Thus both journalistic manpower and the development of the media as an industry have been concentrated in these two cities. In other words the findings indicate that the concentration of the media workforce has been developing more in urban areas, and similar trend has been observed in other journalistic studies (See Chongshan Chen et al. 1998, Ildiko Kovats 1998, Kirat 1998). Furthermore, the fact that the majority of Sindh journalists operate out of Karachi and Hyderabad is likely due to the fact that journalists in these areas enjoy more status and professional responsibility than those in more rural areas. A similar idea was put forward by Johnstone et al. (1976); their study found large regional imbalances in terms of prominence and influence within the American media. One illustration of this is that American media also tends to be concentrated in the largest cities, just as Sindh media is headquartered in Karachi and Hyderabad. Additionally, the other prominent feature is that a high majority of editors (86.7%) and sub-editors (98.2%) belong to the districts of Hyderabad and Karachi.

To summarise, that the most of the workforce which controls the flow of news content comes from the urban part of Sindh. Finally, the findings suggest that the media in Sindh are associated with business and government. And on the basis of these findings one can go so far as to suggest that their interdependency upon each other is as un-detachable as skin and flesh and that they have in fact formed a troika involving all three actors, government, business and media. The other main feature surfaced from the findings that much of the control of news production lies in the hands of urban journalists because, on the one hand urban journalists constituted the largest proportion (42.6%) of the sample and on the other all types of media outlets – print and broadcast – lie in the urban area of the Sindh - districts Karachi and Hyderabad.

### **5.2.2 Gender and Age Composition**

#### **Gender**

In regard to the gender of the Sindh journalists Table 5.2 reveals that almost all the surveyed respondents (98.1%) were male. There may be numerous reasons for the striking difference in the gender ratio of respondents; however, some of them may be a male-dominated society, the status of female education and the status of women. As Pakistan is a male-dominated society and according to one commission report in Pakistan women, for the most part, remain to the private sphere while traditionally and

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historically the man is supposed to be in the domain of public sphere (National Commission on the Status of Women, 2007, p. 84). In Pakistan, for the most part, education... is a socially acceptable profession for women (National Commission on the Status of Women, 2007). Therefore, parents are least likely to allow their daughters to join journalism as a profession.

**Table 5.2 Composition of the Journalists by Demographic Variables**

<i><b>Demographic Variables</b></i>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	565	(98.1)
Female	11	(1.9)
<b>Ethnicity/Mother tongue</b>		
Sindhi	405	(70.9)
Mohajir/Urdu	104	(18.2)
Siraiki	24	(4.2)
Other	38	(6.7)
<b>Religion</b>		
Muslim	551	(96.7)
Hindu	14	(2.5)
Other	5	(.9)
<b>Level of education</b>		
School	44	(7.7)
College	163	(28.5)
University	365	(63.8)
<b>Mode of education</b>		
As a private student	197	(36.3)
As a regular student	346	(63.7)
<b>Name of academic institute</b>		
University of Sindh, Jamshoro	198	(54.4)
Shah Abdul Latif University, Khairpur	99	(27.2)
University of Karachi, Karachi	48	(13.2)
Other	19	(5.2)
<b>Age group</b>		
Till 30 years old	239	(42.1)
31 – 40 years old	213	37.5
Above 40 years old	116	(20.4)
<b>Monthly Income</b>		
Less than 10,000 Rs.	217	(37.7)
Between 10,000 to 15,000 Rs.	66	(11.5)
Between 15,000 to 20,000 Rs.	38	(6.6)
Between 20,000 to 25,000 Rs.	22	(3.8)
Above 25,000 Rs.	42	(7.3)
No answer	76	(13.2)
Put (X) cross symbol	5	(.9)
Commented instead revealing Income	110	(19.1)

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Moreover, it is obvious that the media is a profession for literate and educated people and statistics from UNESCO show that “Two-thirds of the world’s illiterates are women and the gap in some cases is exacerbated, especially in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia, and there will be no decline until at least 2025” (Rush, Oukrop, & Sarikakis, 2005, p. 245).

In Pakistan the prevailing attitude towards female education and literacy is negative. Regarding this, Khalid and Khan (2006) highlighted that women’s education in Pakistan is a very complex matter having roots in socio-political, economic and cultural problems, and at times it is stated that educated women’s greater labour participation takes them away from their children for longer periods, therefore, many parents envisage a strict gender division and argue that if, for most of their daughters’ adult lives, they will be housewives, then it seems pointless to educate them. Further, Khalid and Khan (2006, p. 317) continue “Pakistan’s system of education has in many respects failed to provide equal opportunities. Besides being class based it has a gender imbalance also. Boys and girls do not have equal opportunities for education”.

This gender imbalance is also evident from two other South Asian surveys of journalists. As Nepal reported only 11.7 percent (Ramaprasad, 2005) and Bangladesh 13.1 percent (Ramaprasad & Rahman, 2006) female journalists in their samples. It is evident that the underrepresentation of women in Sindh media is a likely consequence of the attitudes prevalent in the patriarchal, male-dominated society of south Asia. It should be pointed out, however, that the profession of journalism tends to be male-dominated throughout the world. For instance, in Far East Asia e.g. in China the proportion of female journalists is 33% (Chen, Zhu, & Wu, 1998); in Hong Kong it is 35% (Chan, Lee, & Lee, 1998), in Korea it is 14.1% (Auh, Lee, & Kang, 1998) and in New Taiwan it is 38% (Lo, 1998). Further, outside of the Asian continent the same trend exists. 25% of all the journalists in Britain are female, (Henningham & Delano, 1998), 20% in France (McMane, 1998), one quarter in West Germany (Schoenbach, Stuerzebecher, & Schneider, 1998), 25% in Spain (Canel & Pique, 1998), 24% in Algeria (Kirat, 1998), 42% in Brazil (Herscovitz & Cardoso, 1998), 26% in Tanzania (Ramaprasad, 2003), 33% in Egypt (Ramaprasad & Hamdy, 2006) and 27% in Uganda (Mwesige, 2004).

The second important gender related feature revealed in the findings of this study states that the entire female media work force 11 (100.0%) of this study was concentrated in two cities i.e. Karachi (63.6%) and Hyderabad (36.4%). The reason



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behind this trend seems that in comparison with all the other twenty one districts, these two are safer both from a law and order and a security point of view for women who are engaged in the profession of journalism. Whereas, in other districts it seems that still it is very hard for women to adopt journalism as their profession, because even male journalists do not feel their life to be secure. As this was expressed by the focus groups participants of this study, reported in detail in the chapter seven of this study. In addition, out of a total of 11 (100.0%) female journalists in the sample 63.6% worked for television media, 54.6% were newscasters and 9.1% were news editors. In this way it indicates that female journalists are more interested in broadcast journalism and prefer to work on desks or newsrooms instead of being reporters or correspondents. Other way the analysis also indicates that those women in Sindh who aspire their career as a journalist, for the great, find employment opportunities in urban area of Sindh. Finally, the state of women in Sindh journalism can be described by borrowing the words of Rush et al. (2005, p. 240) that “world trends in women’s education and occupation in the field of communications reveals a rather worrying picture”, and that is exactly the situation regarding women and journalism in Sindh.

### **Age**

According to table 5.2 the largest proportion (42.1%) of the sampled journalists reported themselves to be in the youngest age group (up to 30 years old); whereas the second highest proportion (37.5%) identified themselves as part of the more mature age bracket (31 to 40 years); however, the remaining lowest proportion (20.4%) apportioned themselves in the older category (above 40 years). In other words nearly 80% of all the journalists, out of the sample of this study (576), are 40 years old or less, substantiating the theory of Johnstone et al. (1976) that newsgathering is a young persons’ profession. Weaver and Wilhoit suggest that this is because this occupation causes stress due to deadlines, non-cooperation of news sources and hard reporting assignments (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1986). In a similar vein Hollings (2007) also came up with a similar finding that the typical journalist in New Zealand is ‘youngish’.

The other various journalistic surveys also support the idea that “journalism is a young persons’ profession”. The percentage of respondents being less than 40 years old stands as 91% in Egypt (Ramaprasad & Hamdy, 2006), about 40% of the respondents were between the ages of 19 and 29 in Nepal (Ramaprasad & Kelly, 2003), the largest age group (48%) was 25 to 34 years old in Taiwan (Lo, 1998), nearly half of the surveyed journalists were between 20 and 29 years old in the Pacific Islands (Layton,

1998), 61% of the respondents were under 40 years old in West Germany (Schoenbach et al., 1998), 87% of the journalists were under 45 years old in Spain (Canel & Pique, 1998), 73% of the journalists were in the age bracket, 25 to 34 years old in Algeria (Kirat, 1998) and finally the median age for all journalists in New Zealand was 40.9 years (Hollings, 2007). In conclusion, therefore, the sampled Sindh journalists resemble their professional partners throughout a majority of the world in that 79.6% of them were under 40.

### **5.2.3 *Ethnic Origins and Religion***

#### **Ethnic origins**

Among all the four provinces of Pakistan Sindh is the most ethnically diverse due to the international transfer of people into the province subsequent to the separation of India and Pakistan in 1947 and domestic internal migration since 1947 (Kennedy, 1991). The survey shows (table 5.2) that the majority (70.9%) of the journalists in Sindh speak the Sindhi language. These Sindhi speaking journalists are commonly known as ‘Sindhis’ or members of the Sindhi nation. The second most ethnic group in the sample (18.2%) is of Urdu language speakers, commonly known as Mohajirs (In English mean Refugees). The Mohajirs are the largest immigrant community in Pakistan coming from India, and the majority of them are settled in the urban areas of Sindh, particularly in Karachi and Hyderabad (Kennedy, 1991). In this connection Ahmar (1996) says that the Mohajir community is a ‘hodgepodge’ of diverse Indian-origin groups who vary in cultural and racial respects, the only bond among them being the Urdu language and the fact that they came originally from India. Apart from Sindhi and Urdu language speakers the remainder proportion (10.9%) of the journalists in the sample, belong to the Siraiki speaking community (4.2%) and other various ethnic minorities which include Punjabi (2.6%), Baluchi (1.6%), Pushto (1.4%), Brahvi (.5%), Gujrati (.2%), Hindko (.2%), and Khowar (Chitrali) (.2%). In this way the results regarding ethnic origin of the journalists correlate with the idea that in any society those in charge of mass communication belong to the same social strata of those who happen to be in control of the economic and political systems (Johnstone et al., 1976). Or in other words “journalists represent the dominant and established groups in society” (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1986, p. 24). In a similar fashion, in Sindh these two ethnicities – Sindhis and Mohajirs – seem to have been at the helm of affairs in all respects, particularly, politically and economically.

### **Religion**

With regard to religion table 5.2 indicates that almost all the journalists (96.7%) identify themselves as believers in Islam. However, among the remaining 3.3% of non-Muslim journalists the highest number 14 (2.5%) were Hindus. And of the rest, a very tiny proportion (.9%) instead identified themselves as followers of Sufism .5%, Spiritualism .2% and Ahmedian .2%. In this way overall, the survey shows that above all the typical Sindh journalist is Muslim.

#### **5.2.4 Income and education**

##### **Income**

The findings in table 5.2 regarding the monthly income of the Sindh journalists highlight some facts about their financial condition. Firstly, the majority proportion (69.1%) revealed that they were both unpaid (20.0%) and underpaid (49.1%).

**The unpaid:** The unpaid category of the journalists (20.0%) were those who instead of mentioning their monthly salary wrote spontaneous comments (19.1%) and put a (X) cross symbol (.9%) somewhere in the space set aside for answers in the questionnaire. And the analysis of those comments indicates that the majority of them were made by those who are not at all paid by their employer media organisations. Moreover, the impulsive comments which were made by almost one fifth (19.1%) of the journalists, in response to the question about their monthly salary, have been analyzed and categorized as follows:

**A. One word comments:** 14 respondents wrote the word 'NOTHING'; 11 wrote the word 'NILL'; 5 wrote the word 'HONORARY' and the last 2 respondents wrote the word 'NO' in the space of monthly income or salary in the questionnaire.

**B. Two worded comments:** 36 respondents wrote 'NOT PAID'; 7 wrote 'NO SALARY'; 6 wrote 'ABSOLUTELY NOTHING'; 4 wrote 'WORKING VOLUNTARILY'; 1 respondent wrote 'NO INCOME'; and other one (01) wrote 'NOT APPLICABLE'.

**C. Three worded comments:** 2 respondents wrote 'NOTHING AT ALL'; 1 wrote 'NOT AT ALL'; 1 respondent wrote 'WORKING WITHOUT SALARY' and one another (01) wrote 'HONORARY WITHOUT SALARY'.

**D. Phrasal comments:** The other various comments which respondents wrote in their questionnaires in the form of longer than three worded phrases or complete sentences were as follows: **1.** No pay, no bonus. **2.** No salary, working voluntarily. **3.** We are

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given nothing. **4.** Salary is not given. **5.** Organisation does not pay any salary or expenses. **6.** Here reporting is done free of cost. **7.** I am not paid any salary by the organisation. **8.** No salary or expenses by the organisation. **9.** No monthly salary by the organisation. **10.** Working voluntarily, I do not draw any salary. **11.** Organisation does not pay, therefore, the trend of extortion and envelope-accepting is burgeoning.

Envelopes, which contain some amount in the form of currency notes, are offered to some journalists, which they receive as bribes and as result the journalists either do not report certain stories or they exaggerate and slant stories in favour of those persons or parties who bribe them. This practice is similar to that described by McCargo (2002, p. 102) in his paper on “Political journalists and their sources in Thailand”. “The practice facetiously known in Indonesia as the ‘envelope culture’ (Hanazaki 1996: 127-30) was quite common at press conferences, and was even more widespread in business circles. Similar practices were widespread in the Philippines (Florentino-Hofilena 1998)”. However, in Sindh such practices take place individually or clandestinely rather than at press conferences.

**The underpaid:** The underpaid journalists (49.1%), however, were those who reported that they earned less than 10,000 thousand PK rupees = less than £80 (37.7%) and 10,000 to 15,000 thousand PK rupees = £80 to £120 (11.5%) per-month. Secondly, apart from unpaid and underpaid workers the remaining proportion of journalists (17.7%) could be called better-paid (10.4%) and lucratively paid (7.3%). **The better-paid** (10.4%) category of the journalists are those who mentioned that they earn 15,000 to 20,000 thousand PK rupees = £120 to £160 (6.6%) and 20,000 to 25,000 thousand PK rupees = £160 to £200 per month (3.8%). And **lucratively-paid** (7.3%) are those who reported to earn above 25,000 thousand PK rupees = above £200 per month. Finally, apart from the above categories the proportion 13.2% did not answer the monthly income question. It may be implied, therefore, that the financial condition of the great majority of the journalists (69.1%) in this sample is extremely dire, since the great majority of journalists (69.1%) remain unpaid (20.0 %) and under-paid (49.1%), and less than one fifth (17.7%) of the journalists could depend on the news media profession as their only means of livelihood.

### Education

A large amount of ink has already been spilled over the education of journalists by scholars of journalism and media. As Raudseep (1989, p. 1) states ‘we are probably just

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as convinced that the quality of our lives depends to a very great extent on the quality of our media'. And according to De Burgh (2003, p. 9) 'trends in society and polity place responsibilities on, and require a better education of journalists'. Machin and Niblock (2006, p. 1) observed that, 'journalism has become increasingly a graduate, if not postgraduate, occupation'; or putting it another way Adam (2001a, p. 315) said that education for journalists requires 'the development of university-based skills in evidence gathering and fact assessment'. Therefore, conventionally, it is assumed that today's journalist should have studied at university level in order to gather, report and analyze the news and information in appropriate and objective ways that are suitable for local and international audiences. This is essential because of the great potential of the news media to influence their readers, viewers and listeners on all manner of political and non-political issues, either local and national or international.

In Sindh the governmental education system at school level is provided for ten years and culminates in the matriculation degree. Colleges provide students with two years of intermediate education after that, with a Bachelors degree coming after an additional two years on top of the intermediate. Then for graduation at Master's level or above students have to be enrolled in universities. In this way regarding the education of the Sindh journalists it was found, as shown in table 5.2, that out of 572, 63.8% reported that they earned their final qualification from universities; however, 28.5% attended colleges and the remaining 7.7% held their final qualification from schools. In Sindh it is not yet compulsory to have a degree in journalism or mass communication to become a journalist. However, despite this, most of the Sindh journalists are university graduates though for the most part, in a discipline other than journalism or mass communication. Moreover, regarding education, according to table 5.3, from the perspective of geographic affiliation it was found that in rural areas the proportion of school/college educated (76.3%) news-workers was higher than the university graduates (46.8%). However, in contrast, among urban news professionals the proportion of university graduates (53.2%) was greater than the school/college educated (23.7%). In other words on average there are more university qualified journalists in urban areas of Sindh. Finally, as mentioned earlier, a large majority of journalists (63.8%) in this study have obtained their final degrees from university.

**Table 5.3 Distribution of the Journalists by Education and Geographic Affiliation**

<i>Geographic affiliation</i>	Education level		
	School/college (%)	University (%)	Total (%)
Rural journalists	158(76.3)	171(46.8)	329(57.5)
Urban journalists	49(23.7)	194(53.2)	243(42.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>207(100)</b>	<b>365(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>

To determine whether differences between education level and geographic affiliation are statistically significant the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence. The test showed significant differences between the education level and geographic affiliation of the journalists, (with Yates Continuity Correction)  $\chi^2 (1, n = 572) = 45.77, p = .000, \phi = -.28$ ), suggesting that on average urban journalists were more university educated than rural journalists.

### **Mode of Education**

The other significant aspect of the education analysis was to determine whether journalists have received their final academic degree from a regular or private education system. As with regard to quality of education in Pakistan it is generally perceived that those who are educated as regular students in academic institutions are comparatively more competent and efficient than those who seek education privately. (Just as elsewhere, students in Pakistan are normally required to receive their education in an academic institution, but those who receive a “private” education study on their own at home.). As indicated in table 5.2, out of a total of 543 the significant majority (63.7%) of the journalists reported that they had received their final academic qualification as regular students, whereas the remaining proportion (36.3%) revealed that they obtained their final academic degree from the private education system.

Finally, survey respondents indicated that the majority (54.4%) had obtained their final qualification from University of Sindh, Jamshoro and over one fourth (27.2%) from Shah Abdul Latif University Khairpur. Of the rest of the journalists, 18.4% reported that they received their final qualification at the University of Karachi, Karachi, (13.2%) and other (5.2%) various universities. Therefore, the survey indicates that the typical Sindh journalist sought his final degree from university by the regular education system and is a graduate of University of Sindh, Jamshoro.

### 5.3 Work background of the Journalists

#### 5.3.1 Job title identification and responsibilities

**Table 5.4 Composition of the Journalists by Work background-Related Variables**

<i>Work-Related Variables</i>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Job title</b>		
Editor	15	(2.6)
Sub editor	109	(18.9)
Correspondent	109	(18.9)
Reporter	258	(44.8)
Bureau chief	27	(4.7)
Other	58	(10.1)
<b>Job seniority</b>		
About 3 years (cubs)	116	(20.1)
About 5 years (juniors)	67	(11.6)
Above 5 years (seniors)	393	(68.2)
<b>Organisation type</b>		
Daily newspaper	350	(60.8)
Radio	6	(1.0)
Television	178	(30.9)
News agency	36	(6.2)
News magazine	3	(.5)
Online journalism	3	(.5)
<b>Media organisation language</b>		
English	59	(10.3)
Sindhi	352	(61.2)
Urdu	163	(28.3)
Punjabi	1	(.2)
<b>Preference for English media</b>		
Yes	257	(50.6)
Perhaps	116	(22.8)
No	135	(26.6)
<b>Reasons to prefer English media</b>		
It pays more	59	(16.7)
It is symbol of status	106	(30.0)
Both	121	(34.3)
Do not know	16	(4.5)
If other reason explain	51	(14.4)
<b>Media ownership</b>		
Private	543	(94.3)
Government	33	(5.7)
<b>Work type</b>		
Full-time	419	(77.9)
Part-time	119	(22.1)
<b>Government journalists' job nature</b>		
Probationary	2	(6.1)
Permanent	15	(45.5)
Contract	16	(48.5)

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The journalists in this study, in terms of their specific job titles, classified themselves into five major categories, which are detailed in table 5.4. Out of a total 576 the highest proportion (44.8%) identified themselves as reporters. In exact equal proportions of about one fifth journalists mentioned that they were working as sub editors (18.9%) and correspondents (18.9%). In addition 4.7% respondents said that they had the job title of 'bureau chief' – the work responsibility of the bureau chief is also to report news, however, appointed at district level - and among all the lowest proportion of 2.6% categorized themselves as editors. However, the remaining proportion of one tenth (10.1%) recognised themselves with 'other' different job titles which include chief editor, news editor, resource-person news, editorial page in-charge , script editor, news producer, copy editor, newscaster, anchorperson, script writer, news director and in-charge of news production. Moreover, it is significant to note that two common characteristics among 'others' were that first, despite having various job titles or identifications, their chief responsibilities were to assess and control the news content or in other words edit or check the news content before it was published and broadcasted and second all of them worked at the newsrooms of their employer media organisations instead of being out in the field. The total percentage of those who identified themselves as reporter, correspondent, and bureau chief was 68.4%, more than two thirds of the whole sample. It should be pointed out that although their job titles are different; their actual responsibilities are going to be quite similar - collecting and reporting the news. As far as the convention of assigning reporters to a special "beat" particularly in rural areas of Sindh the same reporter, correspondent or bureau chief has to cover all types of news from crime to education and politics to cultural issues.

However, on the contrary in urban areas, that is Hyderabad and particularly in Karachi, the trend of assigning a special beat to the journalists, to some extent, is found, specifically in the subjects of politics and crime. The remaining one third of the sample (31.6%) was composed of those with the job titles of editor, sub-editor and "other". The professional responsibility of this group, according to McKay (2005) consists of checking for punctuation, accuracy and particularly tone and balance of the news stories before they are published or broadcast. In conclusion, this survey demonstrates that the great majority of journalists (68.4%) in the sample are engaged in news and information collection and the remaining one third edit and control the news content before it is published or broadcast. For the purposes of this study, we will classify all journalists



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into two major types i.e. **newsroom** journalists (editor, sub-editor and “other”) and **news-reporting** journalists (reporter, correspondent or bureau chief).

See table 5.5. Firstly, in terms of income it was observed that on the one hand all unpaid journalists 115 (20.0%) were found among news-reporting professionals; on the other, among those who did not answer the monthly income question the proportion of news-reporting journalists (17.5%) was bigger than newsroom staffers (3.8%); whereas in contrast among those who were under-paid, better-paid and lucratively-paid the proportions of newsroom journalists (62.6%, 19.8% and 13.7% respectively) were higher than their news-reporting counterparts (42.9%, 6.1% and 4.3% respectively). Thus it seems that, according to the findings of this survey, on average newsroom journalists are comparatively better off than their news-reporting colleagues. However, these salary findings stand in contrast to the findings about the journalists in New Zealand, where according to Hollings (2007, p. 188) ‘reporters are apparently the best paid of all journalists, ahead of editors, with sub-editors significantly further behind.’ Secondly, in terms of age: 57.8% of newsroom journalists fell into the “young” category, whereas only 34.8% of the news-reporting journalists were included in this category. 27.8% of the newsroom journalists classified themselves as “mature”, and 14.4% as “old”; of the news-reporting journalists, on the other hand, 42.0% claimed to be “mature”, and 23.2% “old”.

This indicates that a higher percentage of the newsroom journalists fell into the “young” category (57.8%) than did the news-reporting journalists—only 34.8% of these were “young.” Thirdly, the proportion of news-reporting journalists who classed themselves as school/college educated was higher (41.7%) than the percentage of newsroom journalists who chose this classification, 24.3%. The percentage of newsroom journalists who identified themselves as “university educated” was 75.7%, higher than the percentage of news-reporters who did so (58.3%). This indicates that on average newsroom journalists are better educated than are news-reporters. Fourthly, a very significant difference was found among the journalists in Sindh subject to geographical affiliation. As among rural journalists the proportion of news-reporting professionals (82.5%) was higher than their newsroom colleagues, whereas, in contrast, among urban journalists the proportion of newsroom journalists (96.7%) was bigger than news-reporting journalists. In this way the findings mentioned that a typical rural journalist is a news-reporter; however, on the contrary the typical urban journalist is a news-room worker.

**Table 5.5 Distribution by journalist type and demographic variables**

<i>Demographic variables</i>	<b>Journalist type</b>		<b>Total (%)</b>
	<b>Newsroom (%)</b>	<b>News-reporting (%)</b>	
<b>Monthly income</b>			
Unpaid	0(.0)	115(29.2)	115(20.0)
Under-paid	114(62.6)	169(42.9)	283(49.1)
Better-paid	36(19.8)	24(6.1)	60(10.4)
Lucratively	25(13.7)	17(4.3)	42(7.3)
No answer	7(3.8)	69(17.5)	76(13.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>182(100)</b>	<b>394(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>
<b>Age category</b>			
0 - 30 years ( Young )	104(57.8)	135(34.8)	239(42.1)
31 – 40 years (Mature )	50(27.8)	163(42.0)	213(37.5)
Above 40 years (Old )	26(14.4)	90(23.2)	116(20.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>180(100)</b>	<b>388(100)</b>	<b>568(100)</b>
<b>Education level</b>			
School/college	44(24.3)	163(41.7)	207(36.2)
University	137(75.7)	228(58.3)	365(63.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>181(100)</b>	<b>391(100)</b>	<b>572(100)</b>
<b>Geographical affiliation</b>			
Rural journalists	6(3.3)	325(82.5)	331(57.5)
Urban journalists	176(96.7)	69(17.5)	245(42.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>182(100)</b>	<b>394(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>

Further, to determine the level of association between journalist type and monthly income, age, education level and geographical affiliation of the news-workers in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations between above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between journalist type and monthly income,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 576) = 1.18, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .45$ ), suggesting that on average newsroom journalists were more underpaid, better-paid and lucratively-paid, in contrast news-reporting were more unpaid and not answering to the monthly income question.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between journalist type and age categories,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 568) = 26.69, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .21$ ), suggesting that on average newsroom journalists were more younger than news-reporting journalists.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Yate continuity correction) between journalist type and education level,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 572) = 16.18, p = .000$ ,  $\Phi = - .16$ ), showing that on average newsroom journalists were more university educated than news-reporting journalists.

- (iv) There was a significant association (with Yate continuity correction) between journalist type and geographical affiliation,  $\chi^2(1, n = 576) = 3.19, p = .000$ ,  $\Phi = -.74$ ), suggesting that on average newsroom journalists were more urban journalists, whereas news-reporting were more rural journalists.

### 5.3.2 Job seniority

According to table 5.4 out of a total of 576 more than two thirds (68.2%) of the journalists in this study had been affiliated with the news media for more than five years. However, in contrast, a little less than one third (31.8%) of the respondents reported that they had been working as journalists for less than that; 11.6% had been employed by the media from four to five years and 20.1% for three years or less. In other words a substantial majority (68.2%) of the journalists in this sample have job seniority of more than five years.

**Table 5.6 Distribution of the Journalists by Job Experience**

<i>Selected Variables</i>	<b>Job experience</b>			<b>Total</b>
	<b>About 3 years (Cubs)</b>	<b>About 5 years (Juniors)</b>	<b>Above 5 years (Seniors)</b>	
<b>Journalist type</b>				
Newsroom	61(52.6)	25(37.3)	96(24.4)	182(31.6)
News-reporting	55(47.4)	42(62.7)	297(75.6)	394(68.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>116(100)</b>	<b>67(100)</b>	<b>393(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>
<b>Monthly income</b>				
Unpaid	13(11.2)	17(25.4)	85(21.6)	115(20.0)
Underpaid	78(67.2)	38(56.7)	167(42.5)	283(49.1)
Better-paid	12(10.3)	4(6.0)	44(11.2)	60(10.4)
Lucratively-paid	4(3.4)	2(3.0)	36(9.2)	76(7.3)
No answer	9(7.8)	6(9.0)	61(15.5)	76(13.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>116(100)</b>	<b>67(100)</b>	<b>393(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>
<b>Geographic affiliation</b>				
Rural journalist	46(39.7)	37(55.2)	248(63.1)	331(57.5)
Urban journalist	70(60.3)	30(44.8)	145(36.9)	245(42.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>116(100)</b>	<b>67(100)</b>	<b>393(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>

Additionally, among newsroom workers the proportion of cubs (52.6%) was greater than both juniors (37.3%) and seniors (24.4%) (See table 5.6). However, among the news-reporting journalists the proportion of senior journalists (75.6%) was bigger than both junior (62.75) and cub journalists (47.4%). Therefore the findings indicate that the typical cub journalist is found among newsroom workers whereas the typical junior and senior news-worker is found working as news-reporting journalist. Secondly, in the perspective of monthly income it was observed that the highest percentage of

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unpaid journalists was to be found in the category of juniors—25.4% of the juniors were unpaid, as compared with 21.6% of the seniors and 11.2% of the cubs. On the other hand, the largest percentage of underpaid journalists (67.2%) was cubs, as compared with 56.4% of the juniors and 42.5% of the seniors. And finally, the greatest percentage of those in the category of “better paid” and “lucratively paid” journalists were seniors—11.2% reported themselves to be better paid, 9.2% lucratively paid. Among the juniors, 6.0% reported that they were better paid, 3.0% lucratively paid, and among the cubs, 3.4% were better paid, 7.8% lucratively paid. To summarise, the findings highlighted that more junior journalists on average remain unpaid compared with cub and senior journalists; whereas more cub journalists on average remain underpaid compared with junior and senior journalists. And finally the senior journalists on average were better-paid and lucratively-paid compared with cub and junior journalists. Thirdly, in regard to geographic affiliation it was found that among rural journalists the proportions of seniors (63.1%) and juniors (55.2%) were higher than cub journalists (39.7%); whereas in contrast, among urban journalists the proportion of cubs (60.3%) was greater than junior (44.8%) and senior (36.9%) news-workers. In this way the findings show that on average the greater number of cubs is found among urban journalists and conversely the large number of seniors and juniors are found among rural journalists.

Further in order to determine the level of association between job seniority and journalist type, and the monthly income and geographic affiliation of the news-workers in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations among the above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between job seniority and journalist type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 576) = 34.00, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .24$ ), suggesting that on average news-reporting journalists were more seniors than newsroom journalists.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between job seniority and monthly income,  $\chi^2 (8, n = 576) = 30.59, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .16$ ), suggesting that on average senior journalists were more better-paid and lucratively paid than junior and cub journalists.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between job seniority and geographic affiliation,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 576) = 20.30, p = .000$ ,

Cramer's  $V = .18$ ), suggesting that on average rural journalists had more job seniority than urban journalists.

### **5.3.3 Organisational Affiliation**

According to table 5.4 the proportion of over three fifths (60.8%) of the journalists in this study reported that they worked for daily newspapers and over one fourth (30.9%) said they worked in television, whereas of the remainder i.e. less than one tenth (8.2%) identified themselves as employees of one of the following kinds of media outlets: news agencies (6.2%), radio (1.0%), news magazines (.5%) and online journalism (.5%).

In this way the above findings indicate that even in this digital age the main employers of journalists in Sindh are the print media. However, the percentage of television news workers (30.9%) indicates that the broadcast media compared with the print media have developed rapidly, because although private television media is only at the end of its first decade of existence, it has the status of being the second largest employer of news corps in Sindh. Moreover, the findings also indicate that radio in Pakistan, though existing since the creation of the country, has not yet developed as a mainstream employer of journalists. One of the reasons for this might be that radio has persistently remained under the direct control of the state, and therefore has not got credibility among the public as an objective and neutral news medium, but is a propaganda tool of the state. Therefore, radio news employment is not an attractive prospect for news workers who value their professional autonomy. Another significant finding of this survey is that a very small proportion (.5%) of the respondents worked for news magazines which serves as an indicator that the news magazine medium is not a promising employer for journalists.

In a similar fashion the tiny proportion (.5%) of the news workers who identified themselves as online journalists shows that for a variety of reasons, for instance, lack of computer literacy among people and low availability of internet technology in many parts of the country, online journalism has not yet developed as a stable employer for news professionals. Hence, the three major employing media organisations for the journalists in Sindh in descending order, are print (daily newspapers) broadcast (TV channels) and wire-service (news agencies).

It was observed (See table 5.7) that among newsroom journalists the percentage of those who identified themselves as broadcast journalists was higher (40.1%) than those who classed themselves as working for the wire-service (36.1%) and print media

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(26.6%). Whereas, in contrast, among news-reporting journalists the percentage of print media workers (73.4%) was greater than that of wire-service (63.9%) and broadcast journalists (59.9%). Thus it seems that, according to the findings, newsroom journalists are found more in the broadcast media whereas the news-reporting journalists are found, for the most part, in print media.

**Table 5.7 Distribution of the Journalists by Organisation type**

<i>Selected variables</i>	<b>Print (%)</b>	<b>Organisation type</b>		<b>Total (%)</b>
		<b>Broadcast (%)</b>	<b>Wireservice (%)</b>	
<b>Journalist type</b>				
Newsroom	94(26.6)	75(40.1)	13(36.1)	182(31.6)
News-reporting	259(73.4)	112(59.9)	23(63.9)	394(68.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>353(100)</b>	<b>187(100)</b>	<b>36(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>
<b>Job seniority</b>				
About 3 years (cub)	51(14.4)	55(29.4)	10(27.8)	116(20.1)
About 5 years (junior)	49(13.9)	17(9.1)	1(2.8)	67(11.6)
Above 5 years (senior)	253(71.7)	115(61.5)	25(69.4)	393(68.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>353(100)</b>	<b>187(100)</b>	<b>36(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>
<b>Monthly income</b>				
Unpaid	90(25.5)	24(12.8)	1(2.8)	115(20.0)
Underpaid	175(49.6)	96(51.3)	12(33.3)	283(49.1)
Better-paid	16(4.5)	29(15.5)	15(41.7)	60(10.4)
Lucratively paid	17(4.8)	21(11.2)	4(11.1)	42(7.3)
No answer	55(15.6)	17(9.1)	4(11.1)	76(13.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>353(100)</b>	<b>187(100)</b>	<b>36(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>
<b>Age category</b>				
0 - 30 years (young)	135(38.7)	88(47.8)	16(45.7)	239(42.1)
31 – 40 years (mature)	129(37.0)	72(39.1)	12(34.3)	213(37.5)
Above 40 years (old)	85(24.4)	24(13.0)	7(20.0)	116(20.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>349(100)</b>	<b>184(100)</b>	<b>35(100)</b>	<b>568(100)</b>
<b>Educational level</b>				
School/college	158(45.0)	42(22.6)	7(20.0)	207(36.2)
University	193(55.0)	144(77.4)	28(80.0)	365(63.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>351(100)</b>	<b>186(100)</b>	<b>35(100)</b>	<b>572(100)</b>
<b>Geographic affiliation</b>				
Rural journalists	231(65.4)	93(49.7)	7(19.4)	331(57.5)
Urban journalists	122(34.6)	94(50.3)	29(80.6)	245(42.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>353(100)</b>	<b>187(100)</b>	<b>36(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>

Secondly, in terms of job seniority, the proportion of cubs who identified themselves as broadcast journalists (29.4%) was higher than those who were working as wire-service (27.8%) or print media journalists (14.4%). However, in contrast, among those who identified themselves as “juniors” or “seniors” the proportions of print journalists (13.9% and 71.7% respectively) was higher than those in these age classifications who identified themselves as part of the broadcast (9.1% and 61.5%

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respectively) and wire-service media (2.8 and 69.4% respectively). This indicates that cub journalists are mainly found in the broadcast media however, junior and senior journalists are found more in the print media. Thirdly, in regard to the monthly income it was found that among those who classed themselves as un-paid the proportion of print journalists (25.5%) was higher than those in the broadcast (12.8%) and wire-service media (2.8%). In the under-paid category the proportion of broadcast (51.3%) journalists compared with print (49.6%) and wire-service journalists (33.3%) was greater. And among better-paid the proportion of wire-service journalists (41.7%) compared with print (4.5%) and broadcast (15.5%) was bigger. Finally, among the lucratively-paid the proportions of broadcast (11.2%) and wire-service journalists (11.1%) were not only equal but also higher than print journalists (4.8%).

To summarise, it seems that on average the financial condition of wire-service and broadcast journalists is comparatively better than print journalists. Fourthly, with respect to age, among those in the “young” and “mature” category the proportion of broadcast journalists (47.8% and 39.1% respectively) compared with print (38.7% and 37.0% respectively) and wire-service news-workers (45.7% and 34.3% respectively) were higher. However, on the contrary among those above 40 years old the proportion of print journalists (24.4%) was higher than broadcast (13.0%) and wire-service (20.0%) journalists. In this way the findings show that young and mature journalists are found more in broadcast media whereas journalists above 40 years old are found more in the print media. Fifthly, in terms of the level of education it was observed that among school/college educated journalists the proportion of print journalists (45.0%) compared with broadcast (22.6%) and wire-service journalists (20.0%) was higher. Conversely, however, among university educated news-workers the proportions of wire-service (80.0%) and broadcast journalists (77.4%) were higher than their print media colleagues (55.0%). This indicates that on average well-educated journalists are found more in the wire-service and broadcast media than in the print media. Finally with regard to geographic affiliation it was observed that among rural journalists the proportion of print journalists (65.4%) compared with broadcast (22.6%) and wire-service journalists (20.0%) were higher. Whereas, among urban journalists the proportions of wire-service (80.6%) and broadcast (50.3%) journalists were greater than print media journalists. In this way the findings showed that print journalists are found more in the rural areas and the wire-service and broadcast journalists are found more in urban areas. To determine the level of association between organisation type and journalist type, job seniority,

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monthly income, age, education level and geographic affiliation of the news-workers in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations among the above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between organisation type and journalist type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 576) = 10.63, p = .005$ , Cramer's  $V = .13$ ), suggesting that on average newsroom journalists were found more in broadcast media, whereas news-reporting journalists were found more in print and wire-service media.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between organisation type and job seniority,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 576) = 21.56, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .13$ ), suggesting that on average cub journalists were more in broadcast and wire-service media, in contrast junior and senior journalists were more in print media.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between organisation type and monthly income,  $\chi^2 (8, n = 576) = 79.35, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .26$ ), suggesting that on average unpaid and not answering to the monthly income question journalists were more in print media, however, underpaid, better-paid and lucratively-paid journalists were more in broadcast and wire-service media.
- (iv) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between organisation type and age,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 568) = 10.31, p = .035$ , Cramer's  $V = .09$ ), suggesting that on average young and mature age journalists were more in broadcast and wire-service media, whereas above 40 years old journalists were more in print media.
- (v) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between organisation type and education,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 572) = 30.72, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .23$ ), suggesting that on average broadcast and wire-service media journalists were more university educated than print journalists.
- (vi) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between organisation type and geographic affiliation,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 576) = 35.04, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .24$ ), suggesting that on average rural journalists were more in print media; however urban journalists were more in broadcast and wire-service media.



#### 5.3.4 *Journalists and the languages of their media organisations*

The languages used by news media in Sindh are Sindhi, Urdu and English. According to table 5.4 three fifths (61.2%) of the journalists in the study said that they worked in Sindhi language media; over one forth (28.3%) worked in Urdu language media; and the remaining one tenth (10.5%) worked in English (10.3%) and Punjabi (.2%) language media organisations. Hence, according to the findings of the study a good majority of news-workers are employees in the Sindhi language media. Moreover, the news content of Sindhi media, for the most part, finds an audience among those of Sindhi ethnicity; Urdu language media is consumed by those of Mohajir ethnicity as well as almost all the other ethnicities residing in Pakistan or out of Pakistan, irrespective of social class. However, the news content of the English language media, for the most part, finds an audience in the elite class and ruling class of Pakistan. Therefore, the news media in Sindh, to a great extent, represent and reflect upon the issues and agendas of their respective ethnic and linguistic constituencies.

Moreover, as regards media language: (See table 5.8) firstly, the percentage of English-language newsroom journalists was 47.5% which is higher than the proportion of Sindhi-language (38.1%) and Urdu-language newsroom workers. However among news-**reporting** journalists the proportion of Urdu-language (87.7%) compared with Sindhi-language (61.9%) and English-language media journalists (52.5%) was greater. This indicates that the newsroom presence of English-language media journalists is on average stronger than Sindhi-language and Urdu-language journalists; but the news-reporting network of Urdu-language media journalists is stronger than Sindhi-language and English-language journalists. Secondly, in the perspective of monthly income among the un-paid the proportion of Urdu-language media journalists (26.4) compared with Sindhi-language (19.0%) and English-language (6.8%) was greater; and among the underpaid the proportion of Sindhi-language media journalists (58.0%) compared with Urdu-language (38.0%) and English-language (27.1%) was bigger. As far as better-paid and lucratively-paid journalists are concerned among them the proportions of English-language (25.4% and 30.5% respectively) compared with Sindhi-language (8.2% and 1.1% respectively) and Urdu-language (9.8 and 12.3% respectively) were higher, which indicates that the financial index of English-language media journalists is higher than Urdu and Sindhi-language media workers.

**Table 5.8 Distribution of the Journalists by Media organisation Language**

<i>Selected Variables</i>	Language of the media organisation			
	English (%)	Sindhi (%)	Urdu (%)	Total (%)
<b>Journalist type</b>				
Newsroom	28(47.5)	134(38.1)	20(12.3)	182(31.7)
News-reporting	31(52.5)	218(61.9)	143(87.7)	392(68.3)
<b>Total</b>	<b>59(100)</b>	<b>352(100)</b>	<b>163(100)</b>	<b>574(100)</b>
<b>Monthly income</b>				
Un-paid	4(6.8)	67(19.0)	43(26.4)	114(19.9)
Under-paid	16(27.1)	204(58.0)	62(38.0)	282(49.1)
Better-paid	15(25.4)	29(8.2)	16(9.8)	60(10.5)
Lucratively-paid	18(30.5)	4(1.1)	20(12.3)	42(7.3)
No answer	6(10.2)	48(13.6)	22(13.5)	76(13.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>59(100)</b>	<b>352(100)</b>	<b>163(100)</b>	<b>574(100)</b>
<b>Age category</b>				
0– 30years (young)	22(37.9)	167(48.4)	50(30.7)	239(42.2)
31-40year (mature)	23(39.7)	119(34.5)	69(42.3)	211(37.3)
Above 40 years (old)	13(22.4)	59(17.1)	44(27.0)	116(20.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>58(100)</b>	<b>345(100)</b>	<b>163(100)</b>	<b>566(100)</b>
<b>Education</b>				
School/college	8(13.8)	139(39.8)	59(36.2)	206(36.1)
University	50(86.2)	210(60.2)	104(63.8)	364(63.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>58(100)</b>	<b>349(100)</b>	<b>163(100)</b>	<b>570(100)</b>

Thirdly, in terms of age among the young category the proportion of Sindhi-language journalists (48.4%) compared with English-language (37.9%) and Urdu-language (30.7%) was higher. However, in contrast, among the mature and old category the proportions of Urdu-language media journalists (42.3% and 27.0% respectively) compared with Sindhi-language (34.5% and 17.1% respectively) and English-language (39.7% and 22.4% respectively) were bigger. In other words the findings show that on average young journalists are found more among the Sindhi-language media whereas the mature and old age are on average found more among Urdu-language media journalists. Finally, in regard to education it was observed that among the school/college educated the proportion of Sindhi-language media journalists (39.8%) compared with Urdu-language (36.2%) and English-language media (13.8%) journalists was higher. Whereas among the university educated the proportion of English-language media journalists (86.2%) compared with Sindhi-language (60.2%) and Urdu-language media journalists (63.9%) was higher, which indicates that on average compared with Sindhi-language and Urdu-language the well-educated journalists are found more among English-language media journalists. To determine the level of association between organisation type and journalist type, job seniority, monthly income, age, education level and geographic affiliation of the news-workers in Sindh the researcher

ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations among above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between media language and journalist type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 574) = 41.77, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .27$ ), suggesting that on average English media had more newsroom journalists whereas Sindhi and Urdu media had more news-reporting journalists.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between media language and monthly income,  $\chi^2 (8, n = 574) = 1.06, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .30$ ), suggesting that on average English media journalists were more better-paid and lucratively paid than Sindhi and Urdu media journalists.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between media language and age,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 566) = 15.84, p = .003$ , Cramer's  $V = .11$ ), suggesting that on average Sindhi media journalists were more younger than English and Urdu media journalists.
- (iv) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between media language and education level,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 570) = 14.60, p = .035$ , Cramer's  $V = .16$ ), suggesting that on average English media journalists were more university educated than Sindhi and Urdu media journalists.

### 5.3.5 Preference for English-language media

Moreover, regarding various language media journalists when it was asked from those journalists who worked in Sindhi-language and Urdu-language media organisations 'Would you prefer to work in English-language media?', then as mentioned in table 5.4 out of a total of 508 journalists (the number of those who did not work for the English language media) slightly over half (50.6%) said 'yes', and over one fifth (22.8%) expressed 'perhaps'. However, the remainder i.e. little more than a quarter (26.6%) answered 'No' they preferred not to work in English language media. Thus according to the findings, it was evident that the majority proportion (50.6%) of the journalists preferred to work in the English media, whereas, over one fifth (22.8%) were uncertain about working in English media, if they had the opportunity.

Additionally, regarding the reasons for preferring to work in the English media (See table 5.4) it was also interesting that out of a total of 353 (100.0%), those

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journalists who had confidently revealed their preference to work in English media there was among them over one forth (30.0%) who mentioned that they wanted to work in the English media because they considered it a 'status symbol' to work in the English media. In other words, working in the English language media enhances the social status of journalists in society. This is likely to be because the majority of the audience of the English media are found among the elite and ruling class, and the voice of that media reverberates strongly in the corridors of power. However, 16.7% of the respondents reported that their reason for preferring to work in the English media was it 'pays more' than Sindhi and Urdu language media organisations. One of the key issues for journalists in Sindh who prefer to work in the English language media is that they are financially exploited, poorly paid, underpaid or not paid by Sindhi and Urdu language media organisations. Additionally, over one third (34.3%) of journalists reported that they would prefer to work in English language media because of earlier mentioned 'both reasons', because English language media organisations not only 'pay more' but also are considered 'a symbol of status' in society. However, 4.5% of journalists reported that they 'do not know' the reason but they would prefer to work in the English language media and the remaining proportion of 14.4% of journalists stated "other" than the above-mentioned reasons for their preference to work in English language media which are summarised and categorised as follows:

### **Learning**

Some wanted to work for English-language media because of the opportunities for learning. For example, one said that 'there is a learning environment in English media', the other said 'I want to improve my skills' and 'I want to improve my knowledge'.

### **Media power**

The other group of journalists reported their preference for working in English media in the following words and phrases: the English media are '*influential*', '*more effective*', '*consumed by ruling and upper class of the society*', '*have status*' and '*government takes urgent compensatory actions if issues are reported in English media*'. Such reasons indicate that they considered English media one of the very powerful components of society which has the power to change public opinion or initiate social change.

### **Professional characteristics**

Some journalists reported that they see the following characteristics in the English media. For instance, English media have, in their words, '*norms and decency*',

*'discipline'*, *'some job security'*, *'possibility to follow journalistic objectivity'*, *'trans-border reach of message'*, *'more maturity'* and *'professionalism'*. Such responses of the journalists indicate that they are after professionalism in the news media which they are unable to find in other than the English language media organisations.

### **5.3.6 Sindh journalists under private and government ownership**

According to the table 5.4 over ninety percent (94.3%) of the journalists in this study mentioned that they worked in privately owned media organisations. However, the remaining proportion which constitutes 5.7% respondents identified itself as working in the media organisations which are operating under direct government ownership. Thus the great majority (94.3%) or the typical journalist in Sindh works under those media organisations which are under private ownership. Moreover, about the type of media ownership according to table 5.9, firstly, from the perspective of monthly income on the one hand all those journalists who did not answer the monthly income question 76 (13.2%) worked in private media organisations and on the other hand among the unpaid and underpaid journalists the proportions of private media journalists (21.0% and 50.5% respectively) compared with state-run media journalists (3.0% and 27.3% respectively) were bigger. In contrast, however, among the better-paid and lucratively-paid the proportions of state-run media journalists (54.5% and 15.2% respectively) were higher than the percentages of privately-employed journalists in these two income categories (7.7% and 6.8% respectively). To summarise the findings indicate that the financial condition of state-run media journalists is far better than that of their private media counterparts. Secondly, in terms of education it was found that among the school/college educated the proportion of private media journalists (37.8%) compared with state-run media journalists (9.1%) was bigger; whereas on the contrary among the university educated the proportion of state-run media journalists (90.6%) compared with their private media colleagues (62.2%) was bigger. Such findings indicate that on average state-run media journalists are better educated than private media journalists. Finally, in terms of geographic affiliation it was found that compared with state-run (21.2%) the higher proportion of private media journalists (59.7%) belonged to the rural part of Sindh. On the contrary compared with private (40.3%) the larger proportion of state-run media journalists (78.8%) belonged to the urban part of Sindh.

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Therefore, it was found according to the findings that on average the network of private media journalists is stronger in rural areas of Sindh; however, in contrast the network of state-run media journalists is on average stronger in urban areas of Sindh.

**Table 5.9 Distribution of the Journalists by Ownership type**

<i>Selected variables</i>	<b>Private (%)</b>	<b>Ownership type</b>	
		<b>Government (%)</b>	<b>Total (%)</b>
<b>Monthly income</b>			
Un-paid	114(21.0)	1(3.0)	115(20.0)
Under-paid	274(50.5)	9(27.3)	283(49.1)
Better-paid	42(7.7)	18(54.5)	60(10.4)
Lucratively paid	37(6.8)	5(15.2)	42(7.3)
No answer	76(14.0)	0(.0)	76(13.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>543(100)</b>	<b>33(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>
<b>Education level</b>			
School/college	204(37.8)	3(9.1)	207(36.2)
University	335(62.2)	30(90.9)	365(63.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>539(100)</b>	<b>33(100)</b>	<b>572(100)</b>
<b>Geographical affiliation</b>			
Rural journalist	324(59.7)	7(21.2)	331(57.5)
Urban journalist	219(40.3)	26(78.8)	245(42.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>543(100)</b>	<b>33(100)</b>	<b>576(100)</b>

To determine the level of association between media organisation ownership type and monthly income, education level and geographic affiliation of the news-workers in Sindh province, Pakistan the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations among above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between media organisation ownership type and monthly income,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 576) = 81.45, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .37$ ), suggesting that on average government media journalists were more better-paid and lucratively paid than private media journalists.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Yates continuity correction) between media organisation ownership type and education level,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 572) = 9.92, p = .002$ ,  $\Phi = .14$ ), suggesting that on average government media journalists were more university educated than private media journalists.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Yates continuity correction) between media organisation ownership type and geographic affiliation,  $\chi^2 (1,$

$n = 576$ ) = 17.28,  $p = .000$ ,  $\Phi = .18$ ), suggesting that on average private media journalists were more rural journalists, whereas government media journalists were more urban journalists.

### **5.3.7 Mode of Working**

In response to the question about the mode of working in news media, according to the table 5.4, the journalists who were employed in privately owned media organisations reported that among them out of a total of 538 the proportion of over three quarters (77.9%) worked as full-time journalists. However, the remaining proportion of over one fifth (22.1%) said that they were employed part-time. In this way the findings showed that for the great majority (77.9%) of news workers in Sindh, journalism is a full-time profession. However, it is important to explain that part-time journalists in Sindh, who comprised one fifth (22.1%) of the sample used in this study, are those news professionals whose prime profession is something other than the news media. For example, they may be employees of any governmental or non-governmental organisation; or they may have their own business; and in addition to these forms of employment they also work as journalists for some media organisations. There are a variety of reasons for this. Some may be ideologically motivated; they work as journalists to improve the life of the underdog and the poor. For others, affiliation with a media organisation is a some sort of key which enhances and underpins their personal businesses by using the power of the press card; and finally for some it is just to make both ends meet which may be hard for them if it were the only means of livelihood.

### **5.3.8 Job tenure status of the state-run media journalists**

In regard to government services in Pakistan, conventionally the jobs are offered for a probationary period in the beginning and later on after the expiration of that fixed probationary period the employees receive permanent status which is supposed to be more secure. However, some jobs in the government sector are also offered for a fixed contractual period and that sort of job has no further security when the contract period expires. The practice of recruiting journalists ‘on a contract basis’ is also found in China (See Chen et al., 1998, p. 16).

Findings from this survey indicate that out of a total of 576 respondents just thirty three (33) reported that they worked in state-owned media organisations, which stands at 5.7% of the total sample in this study (see table 5.4). Second among those state-run

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media journalists out of a total of 33 almost half (48.5%) said that their jobs were contract based and 45.5% said that the tenure status of their job was permanent; however, the remaining 6.1% state-run media journalists reported that they were working on a probationary period. Hence, in the light of the above findings it seems clear that almost half of the journalists (48.5%) in state-owned media organisations have no job security and remain vulnerable to the threat of being sacked from their jobs when the contract period expires. Therefore, it is predictable that due to such insecure job conditions they might be vulnerable to be influenced to follow the government media policy at the cost of maintaining objectivity and balance in news reporting and writing which are among the foremost and basic qualities of journalism.

### **5.4 Summary of the chapter**

The objective of this chapter was to draw a demographic and work-related profile of the Sindh journalists. The demographic characteristics considered were geographic distribution, gender, age, ethnicity, religion, income and education. The study found that, while this population is distributed through both rural and urban areas, in terms of gender, age and religion, the distribution is far more lopsided; the vast majority of the respondents were male Muslims, and the majority 40 years or under. In terms of ethnicity the two largest groups represented in this population were, in decreasing order, first Sindhi and next Mohjir (Urdu speaking). In terms of income, the typical Sindhi journalist is victimised by the remuneration practices of his employer; the majority are either underpaid or not paid at all, despite the fact that the majority of them is well educated having earned their final degree from university.

In regard to work-profile the chapter discussed in detail the elements of job title, job seniority, organisational affiliation, languages and the ownership of the employer media organisations of the Sindh journalists, and found that the majority of the Sindh journalists is involved in news-reporting. Though the typical Sindh journalist has more than five years of job experience, news-reporting journalists have more job seniority than newsroom personnel. Finally, the majority of the Sindh journalists work for print media, in particular privately owned Sindhi language newspapers.



## **6 MAIN FINDINGS OF THE SURVEY DATA**

### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings of a survey regarding job satisfaction and security, professional commitment levels, political affiliation, professional attitudes, beliefs, values, media consumption, and media role perceptions of the typical journalists in Sindh. It also presents the computer training, pre-job, and on-the-job journalistic training for these journalists. Moreover, the profiles of political affiliation, professional attitudes, beliefs, values and media consumption of Sindh journalists have been discussed. Finally, the chapter examines the level of media freedom, professional autonomy and other factors influencing the profession of journalism in Sindh in the opinion of journalists there.

### **6.2 Job satisfaction, security, importance and commitment levels**

#### **6.2.1 *Job satisfaction***

Pollard (1993) while defining the significance of job satisfaction stated that it is an important ingredient to understand workers and their work. He also said that it is doubly significant among communicators, due to the social role of the media and its potential effects on individual perceptions. In addition, according to Pollard (1993) different workers seek satisfaction in different aspects of the same work: some seek intrinsic rewards and some extrinsic rewards, whereas some seek a mixture of them. Moreover, measuring job satisfaction has been said to be a ‘a tricky exercise’, because, ‘there has yet to be a universally agreed upon definition of satisfaction as the various definitions touch on various aspects of job satisfaction’ (Gruneberg, 1979) as stated in Smucker, Whisenant and Pedersen (2003 p. 402). However, despite this, the measure of job satisfaction among news workers usually relies on a single item which is usually stated as ‘all things considered, how satisfied are you with your present job?’ as suggests Pollard (1993).

Therefore, in this research study to determine the level of job satisfaction the journalists were simply asked ‘How satisfied are you with your present job?’ with five answer-options (very satisfied, satisfied, ‘neutral’, dissatisfied, very dissatisfied). According to the table 6.1 out of a total of 573 the highest proportion (47.8%) reported to be moderately satisfied, however a proportion of over one fifth (23.6%) were ‘very

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satisfied'. Conversely, less than one fifth of the journalists (15.4%) said that they were 'dissatisfied' (12.4%) or 'very dissatisfied' (3.0%) with their jobs.

**Table 6.1 Composition of the journalists by job satisfaction, security, importance and commitment levels**

<i>Job-Related variables</i>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percent (%)</b>
<b>Job satisfaction</b>		
Very satisfied	135	(23.6)
Satisfied	274	(47.8)
Neutral	76	(13.3)
Dissatisfied	71	(12.4)
Very dissatisfied	17	(3.0)
<b>Job security</b>		
Very secure	55	(9.7)
Secure	153	(26.9)
Neutral	97	(17.0)
Not secure	192	(33.7)
Not very secure	72	(12.7)
<b>Job importance</b>		
Very important	257	(44.9)
Important	245	(42.8)
Neutral	45	(7.9)
Not important	20	(3.5)
Not very important	5	(.9)
<b>Would you continue in journalism, if other better employment was available?</b>		
Yes	343	(60.2)
No	128	(22.5)
Not sure	99	(17.4)

Whereas, the remainder of more than one tenth (13.3%) of the journalists opted to remain 'neutral' in regard to job satisfaction. In summary, overall the significant majority (71.4%) of the journalists in Sindh are apparently content with their media jobs, and with such a degree of overall job satisfaction they are almost shoulder to shoulder with their colleagues in China with 72% (Chen et al., 1998) and Taiwan with nearly 69.0% (Lo, 1998). However, journalists in Sindh were far behind in overall job satisfaction compared with news workers in countries like West Germany where 96.0% said that they were satisfied (Schoenbach et al., 1998), 86.0% in New Zealand (Lealand, 1998), 85.0% in France (McMane, 1998), 82.0% in UK (Henningham & Delano, 1998), 80.0% in Australia (Henningham 1, 1998), 77.0% in U.S. (D. Weaver, 1996), three quarters in Korea (Auh et al., 1998) and three quarters in Finland (Heinonen, 1998). The journalists in Sindh expressed more overall job satisfaction than did their counterparts in the following countries 67.0% in Brazil (Herscovitz & Cardoso, 1998), two thirds in Mexico (Wilke, 1998), and 60.0% in Algeria (Kirat, 1998). The other

distinguishing aspect is that the proportion of those journalists in Sindh who reported their satisfaction index as ‘very satisfied’ (23.6%) were close to the journalists of 14 other countries, where the average percentage of those who reported themselves ‘very satisfied’ was 25.0% according to the analysis of Weaver and Wilhoit (1996). Further, an independent-samples t-test and one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was run to explore the impact of journalist type, job experience, organisation type, media language, media ownership, monthly income, age, education level and geographical affiliation of the journalists in Sindh on the rating level of job satisfaction. The result was that there were no statistically significant differences among journalists in the context of the above enlisted variables.

### **6.2.2 Job security**

Weaver and Wilhoit (1986, p. 93) in their study of U.S. journalists found a dramatic change in the increased importance of job security, which was almost as salient as public-service job values. Later Weaver and Wilhoit (1996, p. 89) said that ‘for job security, journalists in the U.S. were most likely to consider this very important (61 percent)’. In regards to the job security of the journalists in Sindh, it was found that (See table 6.1) out of a total of 569 one third (33.7%) of those who responded said that their job was ‘not secure’ whereas the other proportion of over one tenth (12.7%) mentioned that they work in a ‘not very secure’ job condition. On the contrary the proportion of slightly more than a quarter (26.9%) said that their job was ‘secure’ and almost one tenth (9.7%) reported their jobs were ‘very secure’, whereas the remaining 17.0% proportion of the journalists were ‘neutral’, in regard to job security. In this way according to the overall findings the highest proportion (46.4%) of journalists in this sample worked under insecure job conditions, and that finding supports the idea of McNair (1998, pp. 10-11) that ‘the majority of journalists work..... in conditions of low job security’. Additionally, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was conducted to explore the impact of job seniority, media language, monthly income and age on the rating level of job security. As a result the following statistically significant differences were found among journalists:

Firstly, in the perspective of job seniority (See table 6.2) it was found contrary to expectations that the cub journalists ( $M = 3.16$ ) compared with junior ( $M = 2.75$ ) and senior journalists ( $M = 2.81$ ) felt their jobs more secure ( $F = 4.05$ ;  $p = .018$ ). Secondly, in regard to the media language it was observed that the English-language media

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journalists ( $M = 3.26$ ) compared with Sindhi-language ( $M = 2.81$ ) and Urdu-language ( $M = 2.86$ ) media journalists felt their jobs more secure (Welch's  $F = 4.86$ ;  $p = .009$ ). Thirdly, in the context of monthly income those who were lucratively-paid ( $M = 3.21$ ) and better-paid ( $M = 3.13$ ) compared with those who were un-paid ( $M = 2.63$ ), under-paid ( $M = 2.89$ ) and not-answering ( $M = 2.76$ ) felt their jobs more secure (Welch's  $F = 2.62$ ;  $p = .037$ ). Finally, in regard to age compared with the category of old ( $M = 2.80$ ) and mature journalists ( $M = 2.74$ ) the young journalists ( $M = 3.03$ ) felt their jobs more secure ( $F = 3.42$ ;  $p = .033$ ).

**Table 6.2 Distribution of the Journalists by Job Security**

Selected variables	Number	Job security	Std. Deviation
		Mean	
*Job seniority			
About 3 years (cubs)	115	3.16	1.136
About 5 years (juniors)	67	2.75	1.146
Above 5 years (seniors)	387	2.81	1.245
Total	569	2.87	1.219
*Media language			
English	58	3.26	.983
Sindhi	348	2.81	1.238
Urdu	162	2.86	1.234
Total	568	2.87	1.219
*Monthly income			
Unpaid	111	2.63	1.355
Underpaid	282	2.89	1.168
Better-paid	60	3.13	1.127
Lucratively paid	42	3.21	1.240
No answer	74	2.76	1.191
Total	569	2.87	1.219
*Age category			
Till 30 years (Young)	238	3.03	1.171
31-40 years (Mature)	209	2.74	1.197
Above 40 years (old)	114	2.80	1.318
Total	561	2.88	1.217

\*. The mean differences are significant at the  $< .05$  level.

Note: For the means, higher scores equal greater security. Scale ranges from 5 = *very secure* to 1 = *not very security*.

### 6.2.3 Job importance

According to table 6.1 out of a total of 572, the highest proportion (44.9%) of the respondents considered their job 'very important', whereas the proportion of over two fifths (42.8%) of the respondents considered it of moderate significance, saying that it is just 'important'. In contrast, however, for the little proportion of 4.4% of the news professionals surveyed their job was 'not very important' (.9%) and 'not important'

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(3.5%) and lastly the remaining (7.9%), slightly less than one tenth, preferred to be neutral, with regard to assigning a level of importance to their job. Therefore, the findings indicate that on the whole the great majority of respondents (87.7%) considered journalism an important profession.

Additionally, an independent-samples t-test and one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to explore the impact of journalist type, job seniority and age on the rating level of job importance. As a result the following statistically significant differences were found among journalists: Firstly, with regard to the journalist type (See table 6.3) news-reporting journalists ( $M = 4.34$ ) compared with their newsroom colleagues ( $M = 4.14$ ) assigned more importance to the profession of journalism ( $t = -2.609$ ;  $p = .009$ ). Secondly, in the perspective of job seniority it was observed that senior journalists ( $M = 4.38$ ) compared with junior ( $M = 3.85$ ) and cub journalists ( $M = 4.17$ ) considered the journalism profession more important (Welch's  $F = 12.631$ ;  $p = .000$ ). Finally, in terms of age, in a similar vein to the senior journalists, the old age group of journalists ( $M = 4.51$ ) compared with mature ( $M = 4.24$ ) and young journalists ( $M = 4.19$ ) gave a higher rate of importance to becoming a journalist (Welch's  $F = 8.793$ ;  $p = .000$ ).

**Table 6.3 Distribution of the Journalists by Job Importance**

Selected variables	Number	Job importance	
		Mean	Std. Deviation
*Journalist type			
Newsroom	181	4.14	.864
News-reporting	391	4.34	.793
Total	572	4.27	.820
*Job seniority			
About 3 years (cubs)	115	4.17	.741
About 5 years (juniors)	67	3.85	.839
Above 5 years (seniors)	390	4.38	.814
Total	572	4.27	.820
*Age category			
Till 30 years (Young)	237	4.19	.789
31-40 years (Mature)	211	4.24	.911
Above 40 years (old)	116	4.51	.639
Total	564	4.27	.818

\*. The mean differences are significant at the  $< .05$  level.

Note: For the means, higher scores equal greater importance. Scale ranges from 5 = *very important* to 1 = *not very important*.

### **6.2.4 *Commitment of Sindh journalists with profession***

Regarding professional commitment Johnstone, Slawski and Bowman (1976) state that most professionals consider their work as more than a “job”. And in this regard they (Johnstone et al., 1976) referred to Freidson (1970, p.70) that work for a professional becomes part of his “identity”. In this way, ‘This type of commitment, when present, should be manifested in an individual’s reluctance to leave his profession for increased monetary reward’ (Johnstone et al., 1976, p. 109). Moreover, Lowrey and Becker (2004) add that commitment to an occupation conceptually differs from commitment to the organization and the committed journalist is supposed to have a sense of calling to the field and recognition that the social consequences of work outweigh economic gain. However, they (Lowrey & Becker, 2004) found that commitment to journalism has been decreasing during the past twenty to thirty years.

Therefore, to assess the commitment of journalists in Sindh to their profession when the question was asked as ‘Would you continue in journalism if other, or better employment was available?’, according to the table 6.1 a proportion of over three fifths (60.2%) of the journalists reported ‘yes’ they would continue. However, in contrast a proportion of over one fifth (22.5%) said ‘no’ they would not continue. Whereas, the remaining proportion of 17.4% journalists mentioned that they were ‘not sure’ about making such a decision. Thus according to the findings, the level of professional commitment of the great majority (60.2%) of journalists in Sindh resembles that of their colleagues in other parts of the world. For example, in the U.S. according to Weaver and Wilhoit (1986) Johnstone found in his 1971 study that most practitioners intended to remain in the field; and twelve years later, the proportion of those who planned to remain in the field was almost the same as in 1971. In a Chinese study of news-workers according to Chen, Zhu and Wu, (1998, p. 28) 57% of the journalists in the sample said they would stay in journalism, when asked the question, if you were given a second chance what would you choose to do? However, the percentage of journalists in Sindh (22.5%) who said that they would not continue if a better job was available was almost equal with that of their U.S. colleagues; in the 1990s, 21% of the American journalists studied said that they planned to leave the field during the next five years (Weaver, 1998a). This was higher than the percentage of their colleagues in Taiwan, where 12% planned to leave the field of journalism in five years (Lo, 1998). In addition, the proportion of 17.4% journalists in Sindh who were ‘not sure’ in deciding whether to continue journalism or not was almost the same as the proportion of their colleagues in

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Taiwan; 17.0% of Taiwanese journalists were undecided about whether they would leave the field of journalism in five years or not (Lo, 1998, p. 82). Moreover, regarding professional commitment, firstly, with regard to job seniority (See table 6.4) among cub journalists the proportion of those journalists who were undecided whether to continue in journalism or not if a better job was available (25.3%) compared with those journalists who wanted to continue (20.7%) and those who did not want to continue (15.6%) was bigger. In contrast, however, among juniors the proportion of those who wanted to quit journalism (20.3%) compared with those who were undecided (12.1%) and those who were committed (8.5%) was higher. However, among senior journalists the proportion of those who were committed (70.8%) compared with those who wanted to quit (64.1%) and those who were undecided (62.6%) was larger.

In summary, the findings demonstrated that on average the professionally committed journalists were to be found more among seniors and the un-committed were found more among juniors, whereas, the cubs were still undecided. Secondly, in the perspective of media language among English-language and Urdu-language media the proportions of committed journalists (13.2% and 30.5% respectively) compared with those who wanted-to-quit journalism (3.9% and 25.0% respectively) and those who were undecided whether to continue or not (7.1% and 26.3% respectively) were larger. In contrast, however, it was observed that among Sindh-language media journalists the proportion of those who wanted to quit journalism if other lucrative jobs were available (71.1%) was bigger than those who were committed (56.3%) and those who were undecided (66.7%). Thus the findings indicate that English-language and Urdu-language media journalists are comparatively more committed than Sindhi-language media journalists. In other words from the findings it can also be deduced that English-language and Urdu-language media journalists are financially satisfied with their jobs, in contrast to their Sindhi-language counterparts, who seem financially weaker, and are therefore much more determined to leave the field of journalism if a better paid job was available to them.

Thirdly, in regard to job satisfaction among those who were satisfied with their jobs the proportion of committed journalists (76.8%) compared with those who wanted-to-quit (64.8%) and those who were undecided (60.6%) was higher. In contrast, however, among those who were dissatisfied with their jobs the proportion of those who wanted-to-quit (21.9%) was larger than those who were professionally committed (12.9%) and those who were undecided (16.2%); whereas among those who chose to become neutral

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on the subject of job satisfaction the proportion of those journalists who were undecided about whether to quit journalism or not (23.2%) was bigger than those who were professionally committed (10.3%) and who were not-committed (13.3%). In this way it was found that those who were satisfied with their jobs were professionally more committed than those who were not satisfied and those who chose to be neutral. These findings support the idea of Weaver and Wilhoit (1986, p. 99) that job satisfaction is a significant factor in predicting commitment to the profession. Further, they (Weaver & Wilhoit, 1986) add that journalists who say they are very satisfied with their jobs are considerably more likely to say they plan to remain in the field than those who are less satisfied. Or in China according to Chen et al. (1998, p. 28) to stay in journalism, 'the most important factor is the level of job satisfaction, for example, of those who are "very satisfied" with the current job, 79% said they would stay.' Finally, in terms of age categories among young category like cub journalists as stated earlier the proportion of those who were undecided about professional commitment (51.5%) compared with committed (38.9%) and non-committed (64.8%) was bigger. Conversely, among mature journalists the proportion of non-committed journalists (42.2%) compared with committed (35.9%) and undecided journalists (35.1%) was bigger; whereas among the old age category of journalists like senior journalists as put earlier the proportion of professionally committed journalists (25.2%) was higher than those who were non-committed (13.3%) and undecided (13.4%). In conclusion it was found that the old age category of journalists seem to be professionally more committed than the journalists of the mature and young category. Additionally, to determine the level of association between professional commitment and job seniority, media language, job satisfaction and age of the news-workers in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations between above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between professional commitment level and job seniority,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 570) = 14.87, p = .005$ , Cramer's  $V = .11$ ), suggesting that on average senior journalists had more professional commitment than junior and cub journalists.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between professional commitment level and media language,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 568) = 14.10, p = .007$ , Cramer's  $V = .11$ ), suggesting that on average English and Urdu media journalists were more committed than Sindhi media journalists.



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- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between professional commitment level and job satisfaction,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 568) = 18.44, p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .12$ ), suggesting that on average those journalists who were satisfied with their jobs were more committed than those who were dissatisfied and those who remained neutral in response to the job satisfaction question.
- (iv) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between professional commitment level and age,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 562) = 13.49, p = .009$ , Cramer's  $V = .11$ ), suggesting that on average those journalists who were above 40 years old were more committed than those who were mature and young age.

**Table 6.4 Distribution of the Journalists by Commitment level**

Selected variables	Would you continue in journalism?			Total (%)
	Yes/committed (%)	No/noncommitted (%)	Notsure/undecided (%)	
<b>Job seniority</b>				
About 3 years(cub)	71(20.7)	20(15.6)	25(25.3)	116(20.4)
About 5 years(junior)	29(8.5)	26(20.3)	12(12.1)	67(11.8)
Above 5 years(senior)	243(70.8)	82(64.1)	62(62.6)	387(67.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>343(100)</b>	<b>128(100)</b>	<b>99(100)</b>	<b>570(100)</b>
<b>Media language</b>				
English	45(13.2)	5(3.9)	7(7.1)	57(10.0)
Sindhi	192(56.3)	91(71.1)	66(66.7)	349(61.4)
Urdu	104(30.5)	32(25.0)	26(26.3)	162(28.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>341(100)</b>	<b>128(100)</b>	<b>99(100)</b>	<b>568(100)</b>
<b>Job satisfaction</b>				
Satisfied	262(76.8)	83(64.8)	60(60.6)	405(71.3)
Neutral	35(10.3)	17(13.3)	23(23.2)	75(13.2)
Dissatisfied	44(12.9)	28(21.9)	16(16.2)	88(15.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>341(100)</b>	<b>128(100)</b>	<b>99(100)</b>	<b>568(100)</b>
<b>Age categories</b>				
Till 30 years (Young)	131(38.9)	57(44.5)	50(51.5)	238(42.3)
31-40 years (Mature)	121(35.9)	54(42.2)	34(35.1)	209(37.2)
Above 40 years (old)	85(25.2)	17(13.3)	13(13.4)	115(20.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>337(100)</b>	<b>128(100)</b>	<b>97(100)</b>	<b>562(100)</b>

### 6.3 The News Media Role Perceptions of Sindh Journalists

#### 6.3.1 Media roles and related concepts

For this study to assess the perceptions and rating by journalists' of the importance of various media roles a 16-item scale, used by Ramaprasad (2001) in her Post-Independence Tanzanian study of journalists was included in the survey questionnaire.

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However, taking into consideration the different cultural background of journalists in Sindh three (3) items out of the sixteen (16) were dropped from the original scale and the sequence of the items was changed. Moreover, before analysing the results of the respondents' rating of the media roles the 13-item scale was subject to a data reduction technique to make the analysis more comprehensible. Therefore, the items were factor analyzed by applying principal components analysis with varimax rotation (See table 6.5). As a result one item 'providing entertainment and relaxation' was excluded from the model because of its low statistical communality, while the remaining 12 items came up with three orthogonal factors having eigenvalues higher than one and explaining 54.26 percent of the overall variance. Additionally, if a variable loaded on more than one factor, it was clustered with the factor on which it showed the highest loading.

In this way the "*Information analysis and public advocacy*" role of the news media emerged as the main factor explaining 23.77 percent of the variance and it captured a total of six item-statements mainly dealing with accuracy, timeliness, objective analysis, investigation of the information, and giving the common people a chance to express their views about public affairs. The second factor "*National development*" having explained 17.80 percent of the variance, gathered four statements related to portraying positively the national leaders, country, and supporting the government in development and propagating its policy. The third factor "*dissemination of political awareness*" showing 12.68 variance covered two very coherent items that is informing and educating voters about politicians and how the government operates, and this seems to have a close relevancy with the watchdog role of media, particularly in this case, sensitising people against the wrongdoings of politicians and over the overall performance of the government.

### **6.3.2 Significance of media roles**

To begin with, the journalists in Sindh assigned a significance rate to all items above the average, a distinguishing feature, which coincides with Ramaprasad's study of Tanzanian journalists in which 'respondents rated all functions above average to be important' (Ramaprasad, 2001, p. 546). Moreover, when analyzing the importance level in the context of the factors the highest mean score was for 'information analysis and public advocacy' ( $M = 4.44$ ) role of the news media. Under this factor, particularly, the first two highest mean scores were given to items 'providing accurate information' ( $M$

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=4.72) and ‘giving ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs’ ( $M=4.61$ ) respectively. In this way it appears that journalists in Sindh were of the view that the primary role of the news media should be ‘providing accurate information in a timely manner’. Regarding the item ‘accuracy and timeliness of information’ it was found in the study of Nepali journalists that it had been ‘rated as the most important’ among all seventeen (17) items like all of *The American Journalist studies*; because, accuracy and timeliness are fundamental to journalistic practice the world over (Ramaprasad & Kelly, 2003). In addition to that another scholar, in his study of Indonesian journalists found that ‘getting information to the public quickly’ was the most important communication goal (Hanitzsch, 2005, p. 498); and he (Hanitzsch, 2005) termed it one of the ‘classical’ values of a Western understanding of the news media which demands from the journalists a set of characteristics like neutrality, impartiality and objectivity.

Therefore, we can conclude that by assigning top-most importance to the media function of ‘providing accurate information in a timely manner’ the news people in Sindh have not only revealed that they also pursued those journalistic values which are cherished most by their Western colleagues, but also they have recognized themselves as pro-democratic or sustainers of democracy; because by ‘providing accurate information in a timely manner’ to the public on the affairs of government, business and special interests the media can form an environment of democratic debate and that subsequently help to the establishment and maintenance of good governance (Peters, 2003, p. 44).

Moreover, under the ‘information analysis and public advocacy’ factor, by assigning the second highest importance rating to the statement ‘giving ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs’ ( $M=4.61$ ) the journalists in Sindh revealed that they were biased in favour of a pro-poor news media agenda which assumes that the media should assume the role of ‘public advocates’. This assumption also surfaced in the response which many of the journalists surveyed in this study gave to the open-ended question, “Why did you become a journalist?” One group boldly wrote that they became journalists so they could carry the voice of the public to the corridors of power. However, the ‘public advocacy’ role of the news media in the importance rating of US (48.0%) and British journalists (56.0%) (See Mwesige, 2004, p. 85) – both developed countries – is comparatively less than that of the journalists in Sindh (67.6%).

**Table 6.5 Factor Analysis of the Journalistic Functions Rated for Importance**

	Mean	Factors		
		I	II	III
<b>Information analysis and public advocacy</b>	<b>4.44</b>			
Give ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs	4.61	<b>.694</b>		
Investigate claims and statements made by the government	4.40	<b>.688</b>		
Provide analysis of complex problems	4.40	<b>.682</b>		
Provide accurate information in a timely manner	4.72	<b>.676</b>		
Objectively report on government national development programs	4.30	<b>.619</b>		
Discuss national policy while it is still being developed	4.24	<b>.603</b>		
<b>National development</b>	<b>3.66</b>			
Portray national leaders in a positive manner	3.53		<b>.770</b>	
Portray a positive image of the country	4.38		<b>.729</b>	
Support the government's national development programs	3.69		<b>.726</b>	
Propagate government policy	3.04		<b>.643</b>	
<b>Dissemination of political awareness</b>	<b>4.21</b>			
Inform voters about politicians' viewpoints	4.11			<b>.776</b>
Educate voters about how government operates	4.32			<b>.690</b>
<b>Eigenvalue</b>		2.85	2.13	1.52
<b>Percentage of variance</b>		23.77	17.80	12.68

Principal Component Analysis Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization; KMO=0.82; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity,  $p < 0.001$ .

Note: Higher mean scores equal greater importance. Scale ranges from 5 = very important to 1 = not very important.

Another coincidence regarding the assigning of first and second importance to 'getting information out quickly' and 'giving ordinary people a chance to express themselves', like journalists in Sindh, was also found in the study of Ugandan journalists (See Mwesige, 2004, p. 84). This similarity implies that journalists in developing countries share a common understanding of the role of the media. In contrast, however, the two statements which were assigned second last and last mean importance scores among Sindh journalists were 'objectively reporting on government national development programs' ( $M = 4.30$ ) and 'discussing national policy' ( $M = 4.24$ ).

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Apparently, the reason for this is that on the one hand both these statements contain the words ‘national development and national policy’; on the other in the execution of these media functions there seems to be a probable dissemination of government information; therefore, the journalists might have assumed that this role would involve propagating government policies. In other words, newspeople in Sindh do not approve of a news media role which involves propagating government policy in any form. This is indicated by the fact that under the ‘national development’ role which emerged as a second factor, the item ‘propagating government policy’ has also got the lowest importance rating score ( $M=3.04$ ) compared with other items both under the ‘national development factor’ and among all 13 items. Even the item ‘providing entertainment and relaxation’ also got a higher rating ( $M=3.93$ ) than the item ‘propagating government policy’. This indicates the ideology of the journalists in Sindh that they do not want the news media to serve as a propaganda tool for the government; however by imparting an exactly equal significance at the third highest level among all the 13 items to the statements ‘investigating claims and statements made by government’ ( $M=4.40$ ) and ‘providing analysis and interpretation of the complex problems’ ( $M=4.40$ ) the journalists in Sindh appear to support the watchdog-role ideology of the news media against the government. Lastly, Ramaprasad and Kelley (2003, p. 305) also found that like journalists in Sindh, Nepalese journalists, who also are in South Asia, rated the item ‘propagating government policy’ as the lowest among all the items.

Further, under the ‘national development factor’ which accumulated a total of four items under its purview with an overall 17.80 percent variance, the highest importance rating was given to the item ‘portraying a positive image of the country’ ( $M=4.38$ ). It is noteworthy that this item got the fourth highest importance rating among all 13 the items – and it was even at the cost of the item ‘portraying national leaders in a positive manner’ ( $M=3.53$ ). This way of ranking the importance ratings shows that from the viewpoint of journalists in Sindh, the welfare of the country is more important than the welfare of the political or national leaders. Finally, the third factor ‘dissemination of political awareness’ - rated as the second significant factor ( $M=4.21$ ) - described 12.68 percent overall variance with two highly coherent items. In the items of this news media role the journalists seem to be clearly on the side of the voters/public. They want to educate them not only about the conduct of the government but also to have a role in disseminating much more political awareness among them. However, out of the two items the preference was given to ‘educating voters about how

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government operates' ( $M=4.32$ ) compared with just 'informing voters about politicians' viewpoints' ( $M=4.11$ ).

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of rating the importance of news media roles subject to journalist type, nature of media ownership, education and geographic affiliation of the news-workers in Sindh. As a result firstly, with regard to journalist type out of 12 the following 6 items were observed having significant differences (See table 6.6). In this way under the 'information analysis and public advocacy' function news-reporting journalists in comparison with newsroom workers assigned greater importance to the items 'objectively reporting on government national development programs' ( $M = 4.39$  vs  $4.11$ ;  $t = -3.01$ ,  $p = .003$ ) and 'discussing national policy while it is still being developed' ( $M = 4.30$  vs  $4.11$ ;  $t = -2.07$ ,  $p = .03$ ). In a similar vein under the 'national development' role the news-reporting professionals compared with their newsroom colleagues placed those items higher 'portray national leaders positively' ( $M = 3.65$  vs  $3.30$ ;  $t = -3.4$ ,  $p = .002$ ), 'portraying a positive image of the country' ( $M = 4.45$  vs  $4.23$ ;  $t = -2.51$ ,  $p = .012$ ), 'supporting the government's development programs' ( $M = 3.83$  vs  $3.44$ ;  $t = -3.56$ ,  $p = .000$ ), and 'propagating government policy' ( $M = 3.14$  vs  $2.85$ ;  $t = -2.44$ ,  $p = .015$ ). Overall the findings indicate that news-reporting journalists compared with their newsroom colleagues placed more significance on both 'information analysis' and particularly the 'national development' role of the news media.

Secondly, in the context of ownership type, out of 12, the following four items were found statistically significant (See table 6.7). First, under 'information analysis and public advocacy' role, private media journalists compared with their state-run media counterparts assigned higher importance to one item 'giving ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs' ( $M = 4.62$  vs  $4.38$ ;  $t = 2.11$ ,  $p = .03$ ). Whereas subject to 'national development' role, state-run media news-workers compared with private media journalists placed a greater importance on the following three items under 'national development' role 'portraying a positive image of the country' ( $M = 4.67$  vs  $4.36$ ;  $t = -2.55$ ,  $p = .01$ ), 'supporting the government's national development programs' ( $M = 4.29$  vs  $3.65$ ;  $t = -3.86$ ,  $p = .000$ ) and 'propagating government policy' ( $M = 3.90$  vs  $2.98$ ;  $t = -3.92$ ,  $p = .000$ ). Such differences in the mean importance scores indicate clearly that compared with private media journalists the state-run media journalists assigned more importance to the 'national development' role of the news media. By way of contrast, in the light of the significant difference

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attached to the item ‘giving ordinary people a chance to express their views’ it seems that private media journalists are more in support of the ‘information analysis and public advocacy’ role of news media.

**Table 6.6 Distribution of the Respondents by Journalist type and Mean Importance of Journalistic Functions**

	Journalist type		<i>t</i> Value	<i>p</i> Value
	(Newsroom) Mean	(News-reporting) Mean		
<b>Information analysis and public advocacy</b>	<b>4.37</b>	<b>4.48</b>		
Giving ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs	4.55	4.64	-1.340	.181
Investigating claims and statements made by the government	4.35	4.43	-.978	.329
Providing analysis and interpretation of complex problems	4.40	4.41	-.155	.877
Providing accurate information in a timely manner	4.70	4.73	-.587	.558
Objectively reporting on government national development programs	4.13	4.39	-3.010	*.003
Discussing national policy while it is still being developed	4.11	4.30	-2.071	*.039
<b>National development</b>	<b>3.45</b>	<b>3.76</b>		
Portraying national leaders in a positive manner	3.30	3.65	-3.059	*.002
Portraying a positive image of the country	4.23	4.45	-2.513	*.012
Supporting the governments' national development programs	3.44	3.83	-3.562	*.000
Propagating government policy	2.85	3.14	-2.446	*.015
<b>Dissemination of political awareness</b>	<b>4.12</b>	<b>4.26</b>		
Informing voters about politicians' viewpoints	4.00	4.17	-1.727	.085
Educating voters about how government operates	4.25	4.36	-1.337	.182

Thirdly, under the ‘information analysis and public advocacy’ role, school/college educated journalists assigned a higher mean score to the item ‘investigating claims and statements made by government’ than did their university educated counterparts ( $M = 4.51$  vs  $4.35$ ;  $t = 2.15$ ,  $p = .032$ ). Conversely, however, university educated journalists put more emphasis upon ‘providing accurate information in a timely manner’ ( $M = 4.75$  vs  $4.64$ ;  $t = -1.99$ ,  $p = .047$ ). Further, under the ‘national development’ role the item ‘propagating government policy’ was given a higher score by school/college educated journalists compared with university educated ( $M = 3.49$  vs

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2.81;  $t = 5.68$ ,  $p = .000$ ). This shows that highly educated journalists do not wish the media to be used as a propaganda tool for any state or government.

**Table 6.7 Distribution of the Journalist by Ownership type and Mean Importance of Journalistic Functions**

	(Private)	Ownership type		
		(Government)		
	Mean	Mean	<i>t</i> Value	<i>p</i> Value
<b>Information analysis and public advocacy</b>	<b>4.45</b>	<b>4.34</b>		
Giving ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs	4.62	4.38	2.119	*.035
Investigating claims and statements made by the government	4.41	4.31	.621	.535
Providing analysis and interpretation of complex problems	4.40	4.40	.022	.982
Providing accurate information in a timely manner	4.71	4.75	-.336	.737
Objectively reporting on government national development programs	4.31	4.23	.433	.665
Discussing national policy while it is still being developed	4.25	3.97	1.631	.103
<b>National development</b>	<b>3.62</b>	<b>4.17</b>		
Portraying national leaders in a positive manner	3.51	3.83	-1.420	.156
Portraying a positive image of the country	4.36	4.67	-2.559	*.014
Supporting the governments' national development programs	3.65	4.29	-3.868	*.000
Propagating government policy	2.98	3.90	.167	*.000
<b>Dissemination of political awareness</b>	<b>4.20</b>	<b>4.40</b>		
Informing voters about politicians' viewpoints	4.10	4.31	-1.085	.278
Educating voters about how government operates	4.31	4.50	-1.200	.231

Note: Higher mean scores equal greater importance. Scale ranges from 5 = very important to 1 = not very important. \*. The mean differences are significant at the  $< .05$  level.



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Finally, in the perspective of geographic affiliation (table 6.8) under the ‘information analysis and public advocacy’ role rural journalists compared with their urban colleagues wished more that media should ‘give ordinary people a chance to express their view’ ( $M = 4.68$  vs  $4.52$ ;  $t = 2.74$ ,  $p = .006$ ), and as well the media should ‘investigate claims and statements made by the government’ ( $M = 4.48$  vs  $4.31$ ;  $t = 2.23$ ,  $p = .026$ ). This indicates that when rural journalists are compared to their urban counterparts, they assign a higher priority to the “watchdog against the government” role of the media, and in addition believe it should favour the poor people.

In a similar vein rural journalists compared with urban news-workers assigned more significance to the item ‘objectively reporting on government development programs’ ( $M = 4.42$  vs  $4.17$ ;  $t = 3.14$ ,  $p = .002$ ) and ‘discussing national policy while it is being developed’ ( $M = 4.35$  vs  $4.10$ ;  $t = 3.01$ ,  $p = .003$ ); which makes it clear that rural journalists prefer that the media should report and discuss government affairs and programs with objectivity. Additionally, under the ‘national development’ role too all items i.e. ‘portray national leaders positively’ ( $M = 3.71$  vs  $3.31$ ;  $t = 3.63$ ,  $p = .000$ ), ‘portray positive image of the country’ ( $M = 4.50$  vs  $4.23$ ;  $t = 3.17$ ,  $p = .002$ ), ‘supporting government’s development programs’ ( $M = 3.87$  vs  $3.49$ ;  $t = 3.61$ ,  $p = .000$ ), and ‘propagating government policy’ ( $M = 3.26$  vs  $2.79$ ;  $t = 4.09$ ,  $p = .000$ ) were assigned higher mean scores by rural journalists than their urban counterparts. In sum the findings point out that the rural journalists compared with urban journalists favoured more the ‘national development’ role of the news media.

Further, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to explore the impact of the media organisation type and age level on the importance rating of the news media roles. As a result overall there were no large statistically significant differences between the journalist groups working at various media organisations and being in various age groups, except on two items in the context of organisation type and three items in the perspective of age groups as follows: Firstly, in the organisation type significant differences were found among journalists about two items, the item ‘giving ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs’ which was assigned greater importance by broadcast journalists ( $M = 4.76$ ) compared with print ( $M = 4.56$ ) and wire-service ( $M = 4.31$ ) news-workers ( $F = 10.03$ ;  $p = .000$ ). In contrast, whereas the wire-service news professional ( $M = 4.12$ ) compared with their broadcast ( $M = 3.55$ ) and print media counterparts ( $M = 3.72$ ) were placed higher on ‘supporting the government’s national development programs’ ( $F = 4.20$ ;  $p = .018$ ).

**Table 6.8 Distribution of the Journalists by Geographic Affiliation and Mean Importance of Journalistic Functions**

	Geographic affiliation			
	Rural journalists	Urban journalists	<i>t</i> Value	<i>p</i> Value
<b>Information analysis and public advocacy</b>	<b>4.51</b>	<b>4.36</b>		
Giving ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs	4.68	4.52	2.740	*.006
Investigating claims and statements made by the government	4.48	4.31	2.236	*.026
Providing analysis and interpretation of complex problems	4.43	4.38	.695	.488
Providing accurate information in a timely manner	4.72	4.72	-.063	.950
Objectively reporting on government national development programs	4.42	4.17	3.149	*.002
Discussing national policy while it is still being developed	4.35	4.10	3.018	*.003
<b>National development</b>	<b>3.83</b>	<b>3.45</b>		
Portraying national leaders in a positive manner	3.71	3.31	3.639	*.000
Portraying a positive image of the country	4.50	4.23	3.176	*.002
Supporting the governments' national development programs	3.87	3.49	3.613	*.000
Propagating government policy	3.26	2.79	4.099	*.000
<b>Dissemination of political awareness</b>	<b>4.28</b>	<b>4.13</b>		
Informing voters about politicians' viewpoints	4.19	4.02	1.776	.076
Educating voters about how government operates	4.38	4.25	1.646	.100

Note: Higher mean scores equal greater importance. Scale ranges from 5 = very important to 1 = not very important. \*. The mean differences are significant at the  $< .05$  level.

Secondly, in regard to age some significant differences were observed in the following two items, subject to the 'national development' role of news media, the older journalists ( $M = 3.81$ ) compared with the young ( $M = 3.41$ ) and mature ( $M = 3.50$ ) journalists assigned more significance to the item 'portray national leaders in a positive manner' ( $F = 3.89$ ;  $p = .022$ ). However, under the 'dissemination of political awareness'

role, the news-workers of the young ( $M = 4.26$ ) and the mature age category ( $M = 4.50$ ) compared with their colleagues of the old age category ( $M = 4.11$ ) put greater importance on the item 'educating voters about how government operates' ( $F = 8.25$ ;  $p = .000$ ). In this way the findings indicate that subject to age the old age journalists favour 'national development' media role, whereas, conversely, the young and mature age group of the news-workers put higher significance on the 'dissemination of public awareness' role of the news media.

### **6.4 Computer Literacy and Professional**

#### **6.4.1 Computer literacy**

While commenting about journalism education Karan (2001) claims that the journalism profession has become a specialized task which necessitates some particular skills. De Burgh (2003) has also made the same point while suggesting that to effectively perform the tasks of reporting, analyzing and investigating the world around them, journalists require a broad array of skills and knowledge. There are numerous reasons which make it necessary for journalists to be equipped with specific journalistic skills. However, among them first, may be, in the words of Bartram (2000, p. 181) an understanding of the principle that 'facts are sacred and that reporters do not have the right to change or interpret them when writing news stories'. Because, as Neveu (2002, p. 29) says, 'serious, verified and useful news is the core of objective journalism'; and further, Brants and van Kempen (2002) suggest that journalism should be carried out in the public interest. In addition, despite the fact that 'the journalist retains the power to select who to quote and what evidence to include' (Harcup, 2009, p. 86), 'journalists have more reason than most to examine their words well, because they are in the truth business' (Harcup, 2009, p. 81). Therefore, in the light of the above background, at least, some basic journalistic skills are considered as necessary to those who aspire to work in the profession of news media. Particularly, computer literacy when we are now living in the age of information technology which has accelerated the flow of information 'computer-assisted reporting and online journalism classes have become the norm in many JMC programs' (Chung, Kim, Trammell, & Porter, 2007). As shown in table 6.9, the majority (53.3%) of the journalists reported that they had received formal computer training. When they were asked further if they used a computer in their journalistic work out of a total of 570 the majority (62.3%) said that they did so, while only 14.9%

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revealed that they use it only ‘sometimes’. The remaining proportion of one fifth (22.8%) said that they did not use a computer in their journalistic work. These findings imply that in today’s age of information technology nearly half (46.7%) of the journalists in this study reported that they had not yet received formal computer training.

**Table 6.9 Composition of the Journalists by Computer literacy and Journalistic Training-Related Variables**

<i>Training-Related variables</i>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Received formal computer training</b>		
Yes	304	(53.3)
No	266	(46.7)
<b>Computer use</b>		
Yes	355	(62.3)
No	130	(22.8)
Sometimes	85	(14.9)
<b>Received pre-job training</b>		
Yes	266	(46.9)
No	301	(53.1)
<b>Period of the received pre-job training</b>		
Less than week	41	(15.7)
One week	22	(8.4)
More than one week	22	(8.4)
A month	43	(16.5)
More than one month	133	(51.0)
<b>Received on-the-job training</b>		
Yes	399	(71.0)
No	163	(29.0)
<b>Frequency of the on - the-job received training</b>		
Once	101	(25.8)
Twice	83	(21.2)
Thrice	40	(10.2)
More than thrice	167	(42.7)
<b>Need further training?</b>		
Yes	543	(95.1)
No	28	(4.9)
<b>Training priority</b>		
News reporting	188	(35.47)
News writing	103	(19.43)
News editing	104	(19.62)
Media laws and ethics	131	(24.71)
Other	4	(.75)

### **6.4.2 Received pre-job training**

When the assessment for pre-job training was carried out the news workers who received pre-job journalistic training in Sindh were assessed as table 6.9. More than half (53.1%) of the journalists revealed that they had not sought any sort of journalistic training before entering the news profession. Among those who had received pre-job training who numbered (n = 266), nearly one third (32.5%) mentioned that they received that training for a period of less than one month; 16.5% said that the period of their pre-job-received training was a month and the remaining proportion, which was slightly more than half (51.0%) mentioned that they had received pre-job journalistic training for more than a month before entering the journalism occupation.

As mentioned earlier the majority (53.1%) of journalists in the sample of this study flatly expressed that they had not received pre-job journalistic training. However, even though the rest (46.9%) mentioned that they had received pre-job training before entering the news profession, for almost half of that group (49.0%) the training ranged from less than a week (15.7%), to one week (8.4%) and to one month (24.9%). In summary, despite the fact that about half the journalists surveyed (46.9%) said that they had received pre-job training, the period of their training, for the most part, apparently seems insufficient for developing the required journalistic skills. However, media experts long ago opined that even ‘knowledge of journalistic techniques or skills is of little benefit to society in general if the person possessing it does not comprehend the functions and responsibilities of the press’ (Luxon, 1956, p. 3). Or on the other side, in addition to basic journalistic techniques, Bartram (2000, p. 183) emphasized that ‘journalists need to be familiar with the laws of libel and slander, contempt of court and defamation’. So, contrary to such expectations it seems that in Sindh, to great extent, according to the above findings, a tendency to employ those persons as journalists who must be well-equipped and oriented with the basics of journalism has not yet become a norm to be followed completely in the realm of news media profession in Sindh.

### **6.4.3 Received on- the-job training**

Becker, Vlad, Mace and Apperson (2004) using the term ‘midcareer training’ discussed that after adopting employment, journalists across the world participate in various training programs which are organised or offered by employers, educational institutions and independent training organisations. Further, while evaluating the midcareer training programs in the U.S Becker, et al. (2004) argued that training of working journalists has

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an impact on them, their work and their news organisations and generally on the practice of journalism. They (Becker et al., 2004, p. 3) also found that ‘journalists actually want more training opportunities’ and they are interested in continuing in education for professional growth and self-realization’ (Russ-Mohl 1993, p.11). In this way midcareer training has been said to be one of several probable influences on the manufacturing of a news story. So, the training might change the way a reporter thinks about, gathers and, finally, puts the news together each day (Becker et al., 2004).

Therefore, in this study table 6.9 indicates that the great majority (71.0%) of journalists said that after being employed they have received training in journalism skills. The significant aspect of those journalists who have received on-the-job training (n = 391) was that among them 25.8% had received training only once in their journalistic career. One fifth (21.2%) had received training twice, and a tenth (10.2%) three times. However, the rest (more than two fifths 42.7%) mentioned that they had received on-the-job training more than three times in their journalistic career. Generally speaking this training takes the form of seminars or workshops organised with the cooperation and funding of NGOs to orient journalists, for the most part, on topics such as freedom of the press or democracy and media. They last normally from one to three days. Practice-oriented workshops, which offer training in news writing and reporting or media ethics, are as yet found to be extremely scant.

Finally due to the lack of professional training among the journalists in Sindh, according to the table 6.9, the huge majority of them (95.1%) admitted that despite the job experience of many years, they nevertheless believed they need more journalistic training. The highest proportion among them (35.47%) mentioned (See table 6.9) that they needed training to improve or develop more ‘news reporting’ skills, whereas the second highest proportion (24.71%) said that they were interested in being more familiar with ‘media laws and ethics’. The remaining 39.8% wished to seek training in news writing (19.43%) and news editing (19.62%) skills. Less than 1.0% (.75%) of the journalists wished to improve ‘other’ journalistic skills such as investigative journalism, photojournalism, online journalism, news-casting, documentary making, journalistic English and computer skills. Thus these findings regarding Sindh news people’s felt needs for training indicate that the majority of them still greatly need training in the basic skills required for the profession of news media.

As table 6.10 shows among newsroom journalists the proportion of those who felt they needed further training (31.1%) was lower than the proportion of those who did

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not (42.9%). But among news-reporting professionals the reverse was true—the proportion of those who did need further training was greater (68.9%) than those who did not (57.1%). Secondly, from the perspective of organisation type, the percentage of those in the print media who felt they needed no training (53.6%) was lower than the percentage of those who felt they did need more (61.7%). On the contrary in wire-service media the proportion of those who needed training was 5.9%; but the proportion of those who did not was greater, 14.3%. As far as broadcast media is concerned, the proportion of those who did need training was equal to the proportion of those who did not (32.4% and 32.1% respectively). Therefore, the findings indicate a greater need of further journalistic training was felt among print journalists than among their broadcast and wire-service colleagues. Thirdly, in the context of age, among young journalists the proportion of those who felt they needed training (42.4%) was greater than the proportion of those who did not (32.1%). In contrast, however, in the categories of “mature” and “old” the percentage of those who did need training (37.4% and 20.2% respectively) was less than the proportions of those who did not (39.3% and 28.6% respectively). In summary, it seems that in contrast with “mature” and “old” journalists, those in the “young” category of journalists wanted further journalistic training.

**Table 6.10 Distribution of the Journalists by Training Need**

<i>Selected variables</i>	Yes (%)	Need further training?		Total (%)
		No (%)		
<b>Journalist type</b>				
Newsroom	168(31.1)	12(42.9)		181(31.7)
News-reporting	374(68.9)	16(57.1)		390(68.3)
<b>Total</b>	<b>543(100)</b>	<b>28(100)</b>		<b>571(100)</b>
<b>Organisation type</b>				
Print	335(61.7)	15(53.6)		350(61.3)
Broadcast	176(32.4)	9(32.1)		185(32.4)
Wire-service	32(5.9)	4(14.3)		36(6.3)
<b>Total</b>	<b>543(100)</b>	<b>28(100)</b>		<b>571(100)</b>
<b>Age category</b>				
Till 30 years (young)	227(42.4)	9(32.1)		236(41.9)
31-40 years (mature)	200(37.4)	11(39.3)		211(37.5)
Above 40 year (older)	108(20.2)	8(28.6)		116(20.6)
<b>Total</b>	<b>535(100)</b>	<b>28(100)</b>		<b>563(100)</b>

Moreover, to determine the level of association between training need and journalist type, organisations type and age group of the news people in Sindh the

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researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were no statistically significant associations between above variables according to the following figures:

- (i) There was no significant association (with Yates Continuity Correction) between training need and journalist type,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 571) = 1.19, p = .274, \phi = -.05$ .
- (ii) There was no significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between training need and organisation type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 571) = 3.26, p = .196, \text{Cramer's } V = .07$
- (iii) There was no significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between training need and age category,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 563) = 1.60, p = .448, \text{Cramer's } V = .05$ .

Finally, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of rating the importance of the news media roles for those who needed further journalistic training and those who did not. As a result it was observed that largely there were no statistically significant differences between those who aspired for further training and those who did not. However, out of 12 just one item was found to have significant difference. Under the 'dissemination of political awareness' role the statement 'educating voters about how government operates' was more popular among those journalists who aspired to have further training compared with their colleagues who felt that they did not need further training ( $M = 4.34$  vs  $4.00; t = 1.94, p = .052$ ).

### 6.5 Political affiliation, ideologies and activism

There is a significant body of media and journalism studies research which supports the proposition that the news media play a significant role in the functioning of democracy. The role of political journalism is especially important here. As Neveu points out, for example, in particular it is political journalists who contribute to the production of well-informed citizens; well-informed citizens are enlightened and made active; they strengthen democracy (Neveu, 2002, p. 36). This is the rationale for an obvious and reciprocal relationship between news media and politics. However, McNair (2003, p. 12) goes further in this regard, saying that 'In democratic political systems, the media function both as transmitters of political communication ... and as senders of political messages constructed by journalists'.



When we understand that on the one hand the media are significant to the functioning of democracy and on the other they are the constructors of political messages for audiences, then we can recognise with greater certainty that the political affiliations, if any, of the news media people matter, to a considerable extent, in the profession of news production. The political affiliations of newspeople deserve attention so that we may probe the effects of those affiliations especially on their professional objectivity which is among the basic imperatives of their profession. However, before moving further McNair (1998, p. 75) says that ‘pursuit of objectivity, in other words, does not mean freedom from political or ideological bias.’ Because of the sensitivity of the question and the political culture of Pakistan it was not possible to ask the respondents direct questions which might have revealed exactly which political parties they affiliated themselves with. The survey simply attempted to elicit how and to what extent they relate themselves with politics either as a member or supporter of a political party.

### **6.5.1 *Political Affiliation***

In response to the question about political affiliation (table 6.11) out of a total of 570 more than one third (35.6%) revealed that they affiliated with some political party. However, in contrast to this the substantial majority (64.4%) said that they did not have any sort of affiliation with political parties. In this way the journalists in Sindh, to a great extent, resemble their professional counterparts in Korea where 64.0% (Auh et al., 1998, p. 58) of the news professionals said that they had no political affiliation, and with those in Spain where 57.0% (Canel & Pique, 1998, p. 302) also denied having any political affiliation.

Further, regarding the political affiliation of the news people in Sindh (See table 6.12) firstly in terms of journalist type it was found that among newsroom journalists the proportion of those who were politically non-affiliated (32.7%) was higher than the proportion of those who said that they were affiliated (30.0%). In contrast, however, among news-reporting journalists the proportion of those who were politically-affiliated (70.0%) was greater than those who were not-affiliated (67.3%). Secondly, in the context of the media organisation type it was found that among print journalists the proportion of those who were politically-affiliated (65.5%) was higher than those who were politically-not-affiliated (58.6%). In contrast, however, among broadcast and wire-service journalists the proportions of politically-not-affiliated journalists (34.1% and

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7.4% respectively) were bigger than those colleagues who were politically-affiliated (30.5% and 3.9%). Therefore, the findings highlighted the fact that political affiliation is stronger among print journalists than among their broadcast and wire-service colleagues. Thirdly, in terms of media language, among English-language media news people, the proportion of politically non-affiliated journalists (13.9%) was higher than affiliated (3.4%). Among non-English news media journalists the proportion of politically affiliated news people (96.6%) was greater than those who were not-affiliated (86.1%); it seems therefore that a lower degree of political affiliation was found among English-language media journalists than among non-English media news people.

**Table 6.11 Composition of the Journalists by Political Affiliation, Ideology, Vote registration and casting Attitude**

<i>Political variables</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<b>Political affiliation</b>		
Yes	203	(35.6)
No	367	(64.4)
<b>Nature of affiliation</b>		
Member	61	(30.0)
Supporter	103	(50.7)
Other	39	(19.2)
<b>Registered to cast vote?</b>		
Yes	544	(94.9)
No	29	(5.1)
<b>Ever casted vote?</b>		
Yes	490	(90.4)
No	52	(9.6)
<b>Casted vote 2008 election?</b>		
Yes	402	(82.7)
No	84	(17.3)
<b>Political ideology</b>		
Liberal	337	(59.8)
Moderate	193	(34.2)
Conservative	12	(2.1)
Other	22	(3.9)

Fourth, it was interesting to know that among liberals, conservatives and ‘others’ the proportions of politically affiliated journalists (63.4%, 3.0% and 6.4% respectively) were bigger than those who were not-affiliated (57.8%, 1.7% and 2.5% respectively).

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However, among moderates the proportion of politically not-affiliated journalists (38.0%) was greater than their affiliated colleagues (27.2%). That shows that moderates are politically less affiliated than liberals, conservatives and 'others'. Fifth, from the perspective of age groups, it was observed that among young journalists the proportion of politically-not-affiliated news-workers (44.4%) was larger than the proportion of politically-affiliated ones (38.3%). In contrast the proportion of those who were politically affiliated in the "old" category (24.4%) was greater than the proportion of those in this category who were politically-not-affiliated (18.2%); whereas in the category of "mature" journalists the proportions of both politically-affiliated (37.3%) and not-affiliated (37.5%) were equal. In summary, it seems that compared with old the young journalists have less political affiliation. Sixth, in the perspective of education the results showed that those who were educated at school and college level among them the proportion of politically affiliated journalists (42.8%) was bigger than not-affiliated (32.4%). However, among university educated news people the proportion of politically not-affiliated journalists (67.6%) was higher than affiliated ones (57.2%). Thus the findings show that university educated and young news-workers in Sindh are more likely than school/college educated and old journalists to maintain journalistic objectivity by avoiding direct political affiliation.

**1:** To determine the level of association between political affiliation and journalist type, organisations type, and age of the news people in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated no significant associations in the above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was no significant association (with Yates Continuity Correction) between political affiliation and journalist type,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 570) = .31, p = .578, \phi = -.02$ .
- (ii) There was no significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between political affiliation and organisation type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 570) = 4.00, p = .135, \text{Cramer's } V = .08$ .
- (iii) There was no significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between political affiliation and age,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 564) = 3.55, p = .169, \text{Cramer's } V = .07$ .

**2:** To determine the level of association between political affiliation and media language, ideology and education of the journalists in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-

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square test for independence which indicated significant associations in above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Yates Continuity Correction) between political affiliation and media language,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 569) = 14.56, p = .000, \phi = -.16$ , suggesting that on average Sindhi/Urdu media journalists were more politically affiliated than English media journalists.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between political affiliation and ideology,  $\chi^2 (3, n = 560) = 11.11, p = .011, \text{Cramer's } V = .14$ , suggesting that on average ideologically liberal and conservative journalists were more politically affiliated than moderate journalists.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Yates Continuity Correction) between political affiliation and education,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 568) = 5.60, p = .018, \phi = .10$ , suggesting that on average school/college educated journalists were more politically affiliated than university educated.

Finally, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of rating the importance of news media roles for those who were political affiliated and those who were not affiliated. As a result it was observed that there were no statistically significant differences between politically affiliated and not-affiliated journalists about the importance of media roles, except the following item which defines that under the 'information analysis and public advocacy role' the statement 'providing accurate information in a timely manner' was more significant among those journalists who were not politically affiliated than with their colleagues who had a political affiliation with some parties ( $M = 4.77$  vs  $4.62; t = -2.376, p = .018$ ). This shows that politically non-affiliated journalists are more similar to journalists in other parts of the world who, as discussed earlier, consider this item as the most significant role and responsibility of the news media and journalism. In addition, as table 6.20 indicates, among those who were politically affiliated, the nature of that affiliation varied. Just over a quarter (30.0%) admitted membership in a political party; and half (50.7%) said they were just supporters; the remainder, almost one fifth (19.2%) had 'other' than these types of political affiliations.

In summary, the findings highlight the fact that in the context of organisation type among all, though not statistically significant, the highest political affiliation is found among print media journalists; in the context of age it exists among journalists who placed themselves in the "old" category; whereas in regard to education those who are

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educated at school and college level are more politically-affiliated than those journalists who are educated to university level. One of the reasons for print journalists to be more affiliated with political parties may be, that in the course of its evolution in the Indo-Pak sub-continent journalism has been employed as one of the key means to mobilize the masses against colonial rule in order to achieve independence, and therefore those who aspired to enter journalism considered it a mission rather than just a profession. And therefore this mind-set, even after independence from the rule of English colonialism and the partition of India and Pakistan, seems to have been kept alive among journalists there.

**Table 6.12 Distribution of the Journalists by Political Affiliation**

<i>Selected variables</i>	<b>Political affiliation</b>		<b>Total (%)</b>
	<b>Yes (%)</b>	<b>No (%)</b>	
<b>Journalist type</b>			
Newsroom	61(30.0)	120(32.7)	181(31.8)
News-reporting	142(70.0)	247(67.3)	389(68.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>203(100)</b>	<b>367(100)</b>	<b>570(100)</b>
<b>Organisation type</b>			
Print media	133(65.5)	215(58.6)	348(61.1)
Broadcast media	62(30.5)	125(34.1)	187(32.8)
Wire-service	8(3.9)	27(7.4)	35(6.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>203(100)</b>	<b>367(100)</b>	<b>570(100)</b>
<b>Media language</b>			
English	7(3.4)	51(13.9)	58(10.2)
Non-English (Sindhi/Urdu)	196(96.6)	315(86.1)	511(89.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>203(100)</b>	<b>366(100)</b>	<b>569(100)</b>
<b>Ideology</b>			
Liberal	128(63.4)	207(57.8)	335(59.8)
Moderate	55(27.2)	136(38.0)	191(34.1)
Conservative	6(3.0)	6(1.7)	12(2.1)
Other	13(6.4)	9(2.5)	22(3.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>202(100)</b>	<b>358(100)</b>	<b>560(100)</b>
<b>Age group</b>			
Till 30 years (young)	77(38.3)	161(44.4)	238(42.2)
31-40 years (mature)	75(37.3)	136(37.5)	211(37.4)
Above 40 years (old)	49(24.4)	66(18.2)	115(20.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>201(100)</b>	<b>363(100)</b>	<b>564(100)</b>
<b>Education level</b>			
School/college	86(42.8)	119(32.4)	205(36.1)
University	115(57.2)	248(67.6)	363(63.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>201(100)</b>	<b>367(100)</b>	<b>568(100)</b>

However, the privately-run broadcast media are, comparatively, still a recent phenomenon in Pakistan, which have developed and mushroomed since 2000. In addition the development of broadcast media in private ownership and the prevalent political environment is different from the colonial period. Therefore, the developing broadcast media-corps seem less politically-affiliated than their print media counterparts. In addition, it was observed that the level of education also plays a key role in enlightening the news people regarding the ethics of their profession; as highly educated journalists seem to detach themselves from political affiliation which could be a great force for higher standards of quality and objectivity in the work of the news media in Sindh.

### **6.5.2 *Political Activism among Sindh journalists***

The term political activism in the context of this study is used to distinguish between those journalists who are registered to cast their votes during any national or provincial election in Pakistan and those who, even though it is part of their professional responsibility to disseminate news information and political awareness, are not yet themselves registered officially to vote. As table 6.11 indicates, out of a total of 573 journalists almost all (94.9%) responded that they were officially registered to cast a vote in an election; however the remaining small proportion of 5.1% reported that they were not registered.

Moreover, as table 6.13 shows, in terms of journalist type, among newsroom workers the proportion of non-registered voters (62.1%) was more than two times higher than the percentage of registered voters (30.1%). However, in contrast among news-reporting professionals the proportion of vote-registered journalists (69.9%) was greater than vote-not-registered journalists (37.9%). That shows that news-reporting journalists were politically more active than their newsroom colleagues. Second, in the context of media organisation type it was observed that among print journalists the proportion of registered-to-vote (62.9%) journalists was higher than those who were not-registered-to-vote (31.0%). In contrast, however, among broadcast and wire-service journalists the proportions of those who were not-registered-to-vote (51.7% and 17.2% respectively) were greater than those who were registered-to-vote (31.6% and 5.5%). In other words the findings show that print journalists are politically more active than their broadcast and wire-service colleagues. Thirdly in the perspective of age group the findings revealed that among young journalists the proportion of those who were not-

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registered-to-vote (79.3%) was greater than those who reported to be registered-to-vote (40.0%). Contrary to this, however, among mature news-workers the proportion of those who were registered-to-vote was bigger (38.5%) than the proportion of those who identified themselves as not-registered-to-vote (20.7%). Whereas among the old age group of journalists no journalist who was not-registered-to-vote was found. In summary the survey indicates that older journalists are more politically active than younger ones.

To determine the level of association between registered-to-vote and journalist type, organisation type, and age of the news-workers in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated significant associations in above variables at following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Yates Continuity Correction) between registered-to-vote and journalist type,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 573) = 11.51, p = .001, \phi = -.150$ ), suggesting that on average news-reporting journalists were more registered-to-vote than newsroom journalists.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between registered-to-vote and media organisation type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 573) = 14.16, p = .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .157$ ), suggesting that on average print journalists were more registered-to-vote than broadcast and wire-service journalists.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between registered-to-vote and age,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 567) = 18.71, p = .000, \text{Cramer's } V = .18$ , suggesting that on average above 40 years old and mature journalists were more registered-to-vote than young age journalists.

Finally, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of rating the importance of the news media roles for those who were registered-to-vote and who were not registered-to-vote. As a result it was observed that there were no statistically significant differences between registered-to-vote and not-registered-to-vote journalists, about the importance of media roles, except the following one item which defines that under the 'national development' role the statement 'portraying national leaders in a positive manner' was more significant among those journalists who were registered-to-vote compared with their colleagues who were not-registered-to-vote ( $M = 3.56$  vs  $3.04$ ;  $t = 2.206, p = .028$ ). This shows that politically active journalists believe more in the national development role of the media than their politically non-active colleagues.

**Table 6.13 Distribution of the Journalists by Registered-to-Vote**

Selected variables	Registered-to-Vote?		Total (%)
	Yes (%)	No (%)	
Journalist type			
Newsroom	164(30.1)	18(62.1)	182(31.8)
News-reporting	380(69.9)	11(37.9)	391(68.2)
Total	544(100)	29(100)	573(100)
Organisation type			
Print media	342(62.9)	9(31.0)	351(61.3)
Broadcast media	172(31.6)	15(51.7)	187(32.6)
Wire-service	30(5.5)	5(17.2)	35(6.1)
Total	544(100)	29(100)	573(100)
Age group			
Till 30 years (young)	215(40.0)	23(79.3)	238(42.0)
31-40 years (mature)	207(38.5)	6(20.7)	213(37.6)
Above 40 years (old)	116(21.6)	0(.0)	116(20.5)
Total	538(100)	29(100)	567(100)
Education level			
School/college	193(35.6)	14(48.3)	207(36.3)
University	349(64.4)	15(51.7)	364(63.7)
Total	542(100)	29(100)	571(100)

To pierce deeper into the skin of the political activism of the journalists in Sindh, when the question ‘Have you ever voted in an election’ was asked, the response according to the table 6.11 was that out of a total of 542 the towering majority (90.4%) said that they had cast a vote in an election whereas the remaining proportion of about one tenth (9.6%) mentioned that despite being registered-to-vote they had never cast a vote. Such a high level of vote-casting among the journalists in Sindh, indicates that they belong to the politically very active class of society which understands the advantages and responsibilities of electoral participation. Moreover, as table 6.14 indicates, in regard to journalist type, among newsroom workers the proportion of those who had never voted (61.5%) was more than two times higher than those who had voted (26.7%). Conversely, among news-reporting professionals the proportion of those who had voted (73.3%) compared with those who had not ever voted (38.5%) was bigger. Thus the findings indicated that on average, news-reporting journalists are more politically active than newsroom journalists. Secondly, in regard to organisation type it was observed that among print media journalists the proportion of journalists who had cast a vote (64.1%) was higher than those who had never voted (50.0%). In contrast,



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however, among broadcast media journalists the proportion of news people who had never voted (44.2%) was higher than those who had ever voted (30.4%); whereas among wire-service news professionals the proportions of those who had ever voted (5.5%) and who had not cast a vote (5.8%) were almost equal. Hence, the findings reflected that the ultra politically active journalists are found more among print journalists than among their broadcast and wire-service media counterparts. Thirdly, in the context of age, among those in the “young” category the proportion of those who have never cast a vote (55.8%) was bigger than those who had ever voted (38.2%); whereas in contrast in the “old” category the proportion of voting news-workers (23.3%) was higher than the percentage of those who had never cast a vote (5.8%). However, among the mature age group the proportions of both those who had voted (38.4%) and had not (38.5%) were equal. In this way it was observed that ultra political activism prevailed more among older journalists than among their younger colleagues. Fourthly, from the perspective of education it was observed that among the school/college educated the proportion of those who voted (36.9%) was higher than those who did not vote (21.2%); on the contrary, among the university educated the proportion of those who had never voted (78.8%) was greater than those who voted (63.1%). Therefore, the survey demonstrates that political ultra activism is greater among the school/college educated journalists than among their university educated colleagues.

To determine the level of association between ever-vote-casted and journalist type, organisation type, age and education of the journalists in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated following results:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Yates Continuity Correction) between ever-vote-casted and journalist type,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 542) = 25.44, p = .000, \phi = -.22$ , suggesting that on average news-reporting journalists were more vote-casting than newsroom journalists.
- (ii) There was no significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between ever-vote-casted and organisation type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 542) = 4.32, p = .115$ , Cramer's  $V = .08$ .
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between ever-vote-casted and age,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 536) = 10.32, p = .006$ , Cramer's  $V = .13$ , suggesting that on average above 40 years old journalists were more vote-casting than mature and young age journalists.

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- (iv) There was a significant association (with Yates Continuity Correction) between ever-vote-casted and education,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 540) = 4.42, p = .035$ ,  $\phi = -.09$ ), suggesting that on average school/college educated journalists were more vote-casting than university educated journalists.

**Table 6.14 Distribution of the Journalists by ever casted vote**

<i>Selected variables</i>	<b>Ever-casted-vote?</b>		<b>Total</b>
	<b>Yes</b> (%)	<b>No</b> (%)	
<b>Journalist type</b>			
Newsroom	131(26.7)	32(61.5)	163(30.1)
News-reporting	359(73.3)	20(38.5)	379(69.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>490(100)</b>	<b>52(100)</b>	<b>542(100)</b>
<b>Organisation type</b>			
Print media	314(64.1)	26(50.0)	340(62.7)
Broadcast media	149(30.4)	23(44.2)	172(31.7)
Wire-service	27(5.5)	3(5.8)	30(5.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>490(100)</b>	<b>52(100)</b>	<b>542(100)</b>
<b>Age group</b>			
Till 30 years (young)	185(38.2)	29(55.8)	214(39.9)
31-40 years (mature)	186(38.4)	20(38.5)	206(38.4)
Above 40 years (old)	113(23.3)	3(5.8)	116(21.6)
<b>Total</b>	<b>484(100)</b>	<b>52(100)</b>	<b>536(100)</b>
<b>Education level</b>			
School/college	180(36.9)	11(21.2)	191(35.4)
University	308(63.1)	41(78.8)	349(64.6)
<b>Total</b>	<b>488(100)</b>	<b>52(100)</b>	<b>540(100)</b>

Finally, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of rating the importance of news media roles for those who had voted and who had not. As a result it was observed that there were no statistically significant differences between those who had voted and who had not voted about the importance of media roles, except the following four items (See table 6.15) which define that under the ‘information analysis and public advocacy’ role the statements ‘objectively reporting on government national development programs’ ( $M = 4.36$  vs  $3.81$ ;  $t = 4.009, p = .000$ ) and ‘discussing national policy while it is still being developed’ were more significant among those journalists who had ever-casted-vote compared with their those colleagues who had not- ever-casted their vote ( $M = 4.28$  vs  $3.94$ ;  $t = 2.435, p = .015$ ). In a similar way under ‘national development’ media role the other two statements ‘supporting the government’s national development

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programs' ( $M = 3.75$  vs  $3.20$ ;  $t = 3.162$ ,  $p = .002$ ) and 'propagating government policy' were also more popular among those who had voted their votes compared with those who had not voted ( $M = 3.12$  vs  $2.35$ ;  $t = 3.994$ ,  $p = .000$ ).

**Table 6.15 Distribution of the Journalists by Ever-Casted –Vote and Mean Importance of Journalistic Functions**

	Ever-Casted –Vote?			<i>t</i> Value	<i>p</i> Value
	Mean (Yes)	Mean (No)	Mean Difference		
<b>Information analysis and public advocacy</b>	<b>4.45</b>	<b>4.35</b>	<b>.10</b>		
Giving ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs	4.60	4.63	-.023	-.237	.813
Investigating claims and statements made by the government	4.39	4.40	-.018	-.139	.890
Providing analysis and interpretation of complex problems	4.39	4.53	-.141	- 1.118	.264
Providing accurate information in a timely manner	4.71	4.80	-.090	- 1.047	.296
Objectively reporting on government national development programs	4.36	3.81	.549	4.009	*.000
Discussing national policy while it is still being developed	4.28	3.94	.341	2.435	*.015
<b>National development</b>	<b>3.72</b>	<b>3.23</b>	<b>.49</b>		
Portraying national leaders in a positive manner	3.59	3.26	.334	1.860	.064
Portraying a positive image of the country	4.42	4.14	.276	1.779	.080
Supporting the governments' national development programs	3.75	3.20	.551	3.162	*.002
Propagating government policy	3.12	2.35	.764	3.994	*.000
<b>Dissemination of political awareness</b>	<b>4.23</b>	<b>4.22</b>	<b>.01</b>		
Informing voters about politicians' viewpoints	4.13	4.19	-.065	-.416	.678
Educating voters about how government operates	4.33	4.25	.082	.613	.540

*Note:* Higher mean scores equal greater importance. Scale ranges from 5 = very important to 1 = not very important. \*. The mean differences are significant at the  $< .05$  level.

Moreover, the findings revealed that (See table 6.11) the journalists who were registered-to cast a vote and had also voted mentioned that, out of a total of 486, a large majority of 82.7% had also cast their votes during the last election in Pakistan in 2008. In summary, the overall picture painted here demonstrates that the journalists in Sindh

identify themselves more as voters than as adherents of any political parties. However, it cannot be assumed that they are free from political bias. In particular, the substantial proportion of the journalists remain unpaid and underpaid as discussed earlier. Therefore, they remain exposed and may be easily lured by the politicians or political parties which always want to publicize and propagate their agendas through journalists; because according to McCargo (2002, p. 106) power-holders offer a range of services (including financial incentives and political protection) for journalists, who in turn reciprocate with favourable coverage. Therefore, it is hard to say that journalists in Sindh are completely detached from the manoeuvre of politics because on the one hand journalism itself is an element of politics (Michael Schudson, 2003, p. 166) and on the other it has been found commonly that ‘journalists are influenced by politicians, and the political systems within which they work’ (McNair, 1998).

### **6.5.3 Political ideologies of Sindh journalists**

Regarding the political ideologies of journalists in Sindh, table 6.11 shows that out of a total of 576, three fifths (59.8%) identified themselves as liberals, while over one third (34.2%) identified themselves as moderates. The remaining little percentage (6.0%) mentioned that they followed conservatism (2.1%) and ‘other’ (3.9%). In this way the good majority (59.8%) of journalists who identified themselves as liberal is consistent with Weaver and Wilhoit’s (1986, p. 25) findings which indicated that ‘journalists often have been characterized as social reformers who are likely to be more left than right on the political scale.’ Further. Weaver and Wilhoit (1986, p. 30) state that ‘with regard to the political attitudes of U.S. journalists we find a left-leaning tendency.’ In other literature available regarding the political leanings of the journalists, McMane (1998, p. 196) found that French journalists tended to place themselves both left of centre and to the left of their organisation. And in Britain, journalists are more likely to be Labour rather than Conservative. When Henningham and Delano conducted a survey of British journalists to find out how they planned to vote at the next general election, 57% said Labour, whereas only 6% said Conservative, (Henningham & Delano, 1998, p. 151). In addition, there is as well a left-wing positioning among journalists in Spain (Canel & Pique, 1998, p. 302). To sum up, the findings regarding journalists in Sindh support the thesis that journalists everywhere, for the most part, lean more towards the left-wing political pole rather than the right-wing political pole.

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Further, regarding ideology (See table 6.16) firstly, in terms of journalist type among newsroom workers the proportion of moderates (42.5%) compared with both ideologically liberal (24.3%) and conservative (33.3%) journalists was higher. However, on the contrary among news-reporting staffers the proportion of liberals (75.7%) compared with both ideologically conservative (66.7%) and moderate (57.5%) news professional was greater. Thus the findings indicate that on average newsroom workers are more moderate ideologically, while news-reporting journalists tend to be more liberal. Secondly, from the perspective of organisation type among print media journalists compared with both ideologically moderate (58.0%) and conservative (50.0%) news-workers the greater proportion were liberal (62.9%). Conversely among wire-service journalists the proportion of ideologically conservatives (25.0%) was higher than both moderates (8.3%) and liberals (4.2%). And in broadcast media the proportion of ideological moderates (33.7%) was bigger than both liberals (32.9%) and conservatives (25.0%).

In summary the results reflected that on average the typical journalist of liberal thought is found in print media. And the typical journalist who is ideologically moderate is observed in broadcast media; whereas the typical journalist of conservative ideology prevails in wire-service media. Thirdly, in the consideration of media ownership type it was observed that among private media journalists the proportion of liberals (96.7%) compared with both moderates (90.2%) and conservatives (83.3%) was bigger. However, in contrast among state-run media journalists the proportion of ideologically conservative news professionals (16.7 %) was greater than both moderates (9.8%) and liberals (3.3%). In this way the findings indicate that typically the private media journalist ideologically is liberal whereas the typical state-run media news-worker is conservative. Fourthly, with regard to having affiliation with political parties it was interesting to note that among politically affiliated journalists the proportion of ideologically conservative news-workers (50.0%) was bigger than both liberals (38.2%) and moderates (28.8%); however, conversely among politically non-affiliated media workers the proportion of moderates (71.2%) compared with both liberals (61.8%) and conservatives (50.0%) was higher. Hence, the findings reflected that among the politically affiliated the typical journalist is ideologically conservative whereas, among the politically non-affiliated the typical news-worker is ideologically moderate.

**Table 6.16 Distribution of the Journalists by Political Ideology**

<i>Selected variables</i>	<b>Liberal</b> (%)	<b>Political ideology</b>		<b>Total</b> (%)
		<b>Moderate</b> (%)	<b>Conservative</b> (%)	
<b>Journalist type</b>				
Newsroom	82(24.3)	82(42.5)	4(33.3)	168(31.0)
News-reporting	255(75.7)	111(57.5)	8(66.7)	374(69.0)
<b>Total</b>	<b>337(100)</b>	<b>193(100)</b>	<b>12(100)</b>	<b>542(100)</b>
<b>Organisation type</b>				
Print media	212(62.9)	112(58.0)	6(50.0)	330(60.9)
Broadcast media	111(32.9)	65(33.7)	3(25.0)	179(33.0)
Wire-service	14(4.2)	16(8.3)	3(25.0)	33(6.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>337(100)</b>	<b>193(100)</b>	<b>12(100)</b>	<b>542(100)</b>
<b>Ownership type</b>				
Private	326(96.7)	174(90.2)	10(83.3)	510(94.1)
Government	11(3.3)	19(9.8)	2(16.7)	32(5.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>337(100)</b>	<b>193(100)</b>	<b>12(100)</b>	<b>542(100)</b>
<b>Political affiliation</b>				
Yes	128(38.2)	55(28.8)	6(50.0)	189(35.1)
No	207(61.8)	136(71.2)	6(50.0)	349(64.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>335(100)</b>	<b>191(100)</b>	<b>12(100)</b>	<b>538(100)</b>

Finally, as far as the importance of journalistic roles is concerned in this regard a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of ideology on the importance rating of the news media roles. As a result overall there were no statistically significant differences among the journalist groups who identified themselves as liberals, moderates and conservatives, except for two statements which came under the ‘national development’ role that ‘supporting the government’s national development programs’ ( $F = 2.85$ ;  $p = .05$ ) and ‘propagating government policy’ ( $F = 2.87$ ;  $p = .05$ ) surprisingly were both most popular among ideologically liberal journalists ( $M = 3.82$  and  $M = 3.20$  respectively) compared with moderate ( $M = 3.57$  and  $M = 2.92$  respectively) and conservative news-workers ( $M = 3.40$  and  $M = 2.90$  respectively).

## **6.6 Professional attitudes, beliefs and values**

### **6.6.1 Press club membership**

According to the views of journalism and media researchers, (See Lo 1998 p.83, Kirat 1998, p.337 and Robinson & Saint-Jean 1998, p.369) participation or membership of news workers in journalistic organisations is one of the indicators of a degree of professionalism among them. As shown in table 6.17 out of 567 respondents the

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overwhelming majority (71.1%) said that they were members of press clubs established in their district areas; however, the remaining proportion of more than a quarter (28.9%) reported that they were not members of a press club or any other journalistic organisation.

**Table 6.17 Composition of the Journalists by Professional Attitude-Related Variables**

<i>Professional attitude-Related variables</i>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Press club/organisation Membership</b>		
Yes	403	(71.1)
No	164	(28.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>567</b>	<b>(100)</b>
<b>Perception about press clubs in Sindh</b>		
Social club	130	(23.3)
Newsgathering organisations	177	(31.8)
Both	250	(44.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>557</b>	<b>(100)</b>
<b>Share information with colleagues?</b>		
Yes	298	(55.6)
No	62	(11.6)
Sometimes	176	(32.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>536</b>	<b>(100)</b>
<b>Is membership rejected at press clubs?</b>		
Yes	246	(45.5)
No	174	(32.2)
I do not know	121	(22.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>541</b>	<b>(100)</b>

However, when this finding regarding press club membership of the journalists in Sindh was compared with the findings of the journalists in the following countries in this context the journalists in Sindh were by this measure, more professional; because the percentage figures of Hong Kong 18% (Chan et al., 1998, p. 41), France 37% (McMane, 1998, p. 199), Brazil 28% (Herscovitz & Cardoso, 1998, p. 424), Algeria 48% (Kirat, 1998, p. 337), Canada 48% female and 40% male (Robinson & Saint-Jean, 1998, p. 369), Taiwan 65% (Lo, 1998, p. 83) and West Germany 56% (Schoenbach et al., 1998, p. 221) were lower than the percentage figure of journalists in Sindh (71.1%). In contrast, the membership figure (71.1%) of the journalists in Sindh was almost equal to the membership figure of the journalists in East Germany 69% (Schoenbach et al., 1998, p. 221) and less than that of journalists in Australia, 86% (Henningham 1, 1998, p. 100) and particularly Finland where all journalists of the print as well as broadcast media were members of the Union of Journalists in Finland (Heinonen, 1998, p. 173).

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As table 6.18 indicates, there were some very interesting findings regarding the press club membership of journalists in Sindh. Firstly, from the perspective of journalist type it was found that the proportion of newsroom workers who were not members of press clubs was much bigger (73.8%) than the percentage of those who were members (13.9%). In contrast, the percentage of news-reporting journalists who were press club members was higher (86.1%) than that of non-members (26.2%). In this way it seems that press club culture in Sindh is dominated by news-reporting journalists rather than their newsroom colleagues who seem to have comparatively less representation in the press clubs. Secondly, in regard to organisation type, in print media the proportion of press club members was higher (65.8%) than that of non-members (50.6%) However, in broadcast and wire-service media the proportions of press club member journalists (29.0% and 5.2% respectively) were less than the proportion of non-member news professionals (40.9% and 8.5% respectively). In other words this finding indicates that among print journalists the dominant proportion is of those who are press club members whereas among broadcast and wire-service journalists the greater proportions are of those who were not members of press clubs. Thirdly, in terms of job seniority it was observed that among cubs and junior journalists the proportion of those who were members (10.2% and 9.4% respectively) was on average less than the proportion of non-members (43.9% and 17.1% respectively). Conversely, among seniors the proportion of those who were press club members (80.4%) was two times bigger than that of non-members (39.0%). This finding serves as a very strong indicator of the fact that senior journalists have high representation in the press clubs of Sindh. Fourthly, in regard to age in the “young” age category the proportion of non-members was much bigger (68.5%) than press club members (30.9%). However, the proportions of member journalists who were in the “mature” and “above 40 years old” categories (43.1% and 25.9% respectively) were comparatively greater than the proportions of non-members in these categories (24.7% and 6.8% respectively). That shows that young journalists have little representation in the press clubs of Sindh. These findings support a complaint commonly heard from young journalists in almost every district of Sindh, that senior journalists have established a monopoly over the press clubs and that they do not easily let the newcomers become a member of these organisations. Finally, analysing press club membership in terms of geographical affiliation, in rural areas the proportion of press club members was much higher (73.7%) than that of non-members (19.5%); in urban areas, the proportion of non-members (80.5%) was greater than that of members



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(26.3%). Such findings suggest that it is harder to get press club membership in urban areas than in rural, particularly, due to the monopoly established upon the press clubs by the senior cadre of journalists, a complaint heard from junior journalists both in personal conversations and focus group discussions as well.

**Table 6.18 Distribution of the Journalists by Press Club Membership**

<i>Selected variables</i>	<b>Press club membership</b>		
	<b>Yes (%)</b>	<b>No (%)</b>	<b>Total (%)</b>
<b>Type of journalist</b>			
Newsroom	56(13.9)	121(73.8)	177(31.2)
News-reporting	347(86.1)	43(26.2)	390(68.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>403(100)</b>	<b>164(100)</b>	<b>567(100)</b>
<b>Organisation type</b>			
Print	265(65.8)	83(50.6)	348(61.4)
Broadcast	117(29.0)	67(40.9)	184(32.5)
Wire-service	21(5.2)	14(8.5)	35(6.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>403(100)</b>	<b>164(100)</b>	<b>567(100)</b>
<b>Job seniority</b>			
About 3 years (Cub)	41(10.2)	72(43.9)	113(19.9)
About 5 years (Juniors)	38(9.4)	28(17.1)	66(11.6)
Above 5 years (Seniors)	324(80.4)	64(39.0)	388(68.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>403(100)</b>	<b>164(100)</b>	<b>567(100)</b>
<b>Age category</b>			
0-30 years (Young)	124(30.9)	111(68.5)	235(41.7)
31-40 years (Mature)	173(43.1)	40(24.7)	213(37.8)
Above 40 years (Old)	104(25.9)	11(6.8)	115(20.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>401(100)</b>	<b>162(100)</b>	<b>563(100)</b>
<b>Geographical affiliation</b>			
Rural journalist	297(73.7)	32(19.5)	329(58.0)
Urban journalist	106(26.3)	132(80.5)	238(42.0)
<b>Total</b>	<b>403(100)</b>	<b>164(100)</b>	<b>567(100)</b>

Further, to determine the level of association between press club membership and journalist type, organisations type, job seniority, age group and geographic affiliation of the journalists in Sindh province, Pakistan the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated significant associations at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Yates Continuity Correction) between press club membership and journalist type,  $\chi^2(1, n = 567) = 191.90$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $\phi = -.58$ ), suggesting that on average news-reporting journalists were more press club members than newsroom journalists.

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- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between press club membership and organisation type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 567) = 11.46, p = .003$ , Cramer's  $V = .14$ ), suggesting that on average print journalists were more press club members than broadcast and wire-service journalists.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between press club membership and job seniority,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 567) = 101.54, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .42$ ), suggesting that on average senior journalists were more press club members than juniors and cubs.
- (iv) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between press club membership and age category,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 563) = 70.16, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .35$ ), showing that on average above 40 years old and mature journalists were more press club members than young age journalists.
- (v) There was a significant association (with Yates Continuity Correction) between press club membership and geographic affiliation,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 567) = 138.29, p = .000, \phi = .49$ ), suggesting that on average rural journalists were more press club members than urban journalists.

Finally, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of rating the importance of news media roles for press club members and non member journalists. As a result out of 12 the following three items were observed as having significant differences. First, it was observed that under the 'information analysis and public advocacy' factor the item 'objectively reporting on government national development programs' was more popular among press club member journalists than with their non-member colleagues ( $M = 4.41$  vs  $4.06$ ;  $t = 3.94, p = .000$ ). In a similar vein the other item 'discussing national policy while it is still being developed' was also found more important among press club member journalists than with their non-member counterparts ( $M = 4.29$  vs  $4.11$ ;  $t = 2.01, p = .045$ ). However, contrary to that, from the perspective of the 'national development' factor the item 'propagating government policy' was placed higher by non-members compared with press club member news-workers ( $M = 3.23$  vs  $2.95$ ;  $t = -2.21, p = .027$ ). In summary, the findings indicate that press club member journalists wish the media to report government matters and policy, however, with objectivity and analytically; whereas the majority of press club non-member news professionals seemed in favour of the idea that news media just simply propagate the government policy.

### **6.6.2 Perception regarding press clubs in Sindh**

The local press clubs which have been established in every district and almost every sub-division of Sindh seem more organised than any other journalistic organisations in Sindh. Generally all those who join the news media as a profession appear to aspire to be members of the press club of their district. In this regard when it was enquired from the journalists in the sample as to how they perceive the phenomenon of press clubs in Sindh province, the response was (See table 6.17) that out of a total of 557 the highest proportion (44.9%) termed the press clubs not only 'news gathering organisations' but also 'social clubs'. However, the other proportion of slightly lower than one third (31.8%) of the journalists reported that they deemed press clubs just 'news gathering organisations', and on the contrary the remaining proportion of over one fifth (23.3%) said that press clubs in Sindh are like 'social clubs'. In conclusion, the survey indicates that the highest number of Sindh journalists perceived the press clubs as social clubs as well as newsgathering organisations.

Other interesting variations among the journalists in Sindh regarding the press club perception were that, (see table 6.19) first, from the perspective of journalist type among newsroom workers the proportion of those who considered the press clubs in Sindh to be news-gathering organisations (39.5%) was higher than those who deemed the press clubs to be social clubs (18.5%) and 'both' (31.6%). However, in contrast, among news-reporting professionals the proportion of those who perceived the press clubs as just social clubs (81.5%) was much greater than those who called the club a news-gathering organisation (60.5%) or 'both' (68.4%). Thus the findings indicate that there is a clear-cut difference in opinion of newsroom and news-reporting journalists regarding press clubs in Sindh. For the newsroom staffers, the press clubs are more news-gathering organisations, but in the consideration of news-reporting professionals they are more social clubs. Secondly, in regard to the geographic affiliation it was observed that among rural journalists the highest proportion (76.2%) was of those to whom the press clubs seemed to be social clubs; among urban journalists the biggest proportion (48.6%) was of those who considered the press clubs news-gathering organisations. In summary, the findings point out that rural journalists make more use of press clubs as social clubs, whereas the urban journalists use press clubs as news-gathering organisations.

**Table 6.19 Distribution of the Journalists by Press Club Perception**

<i>Selected variables</i>	Perception regarding press clubs in Sindh			
	Social clubs (%)	News-gathering organisations (%)	Both (%)	Total (%)
<b>Journalist type</b>				
Newsroom	24(18.5)	70(39.5)	79(31.6)	173(31.1)
News-reporting	106(81.5)	107(60.5)	171(68.4)	385(68.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>130(100)</b>	<b>177(100)</b>	<b>250(100)</b>	<b>557(100)</b>
<b>Geographic affiliation</b>				
Rural	99(76.2)	91(51.4)	134(53.6)	324(58.2)
Urban	31(23.8)	86(48.6)	116(46.4)	233(41.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>130(100)</b>	<b>177(100)</b>	<b>250(100)</b>	<b>557(100)</b>

Further, to determine the level of association between press club perception and journalist type, geographic affiliation of the news-workers in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated significant associations at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between press club perception and journalist type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 557) = 15.62, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .16$ ), suggesting that on average newsroom journalists perceived more press clubs as newsgathering organisations, whereas news-reporting journalists perceived more press club as social clubs.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between press club perception and geographic affiliation,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 557) = 22.74, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .20$ ), suggesting that on average rural journalists perceived more press clubs as social clubs, in contrast urban journalists perceived more press clubs as news-gathering organisations.

### **6.6.3 Sharing news information**

As presented earlier (See table 6.17) 31.8% of the journalists surveyed reported that press clubs in Sindh are exclusively 'newsgathering organisations'; an additional proportion of more than two fifths (44.9%) said that press clubs are not only 'newsgathering organisations' but also 'social clubs'. A further function of Sindh press clubs is as a place where journalists can share information with each other. Out of a total of 536 the considerable majority of the journalists (55.6%) responded 'yes' they shared news information with other journalists at their press clubs (See table 6.17). Almost one third (32.8%) said they share, 'sometimes'. The remaining proportion of

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slightly over a tenth (11.6%) responded ‘no’ they do not share news information with other journalists. Hence, the findings regarding the sharing of news information with each other by journalists clarifies the concept of press clubs in Sindh more as ‘newsgathering organisations’ and less as ‘social organisations’.

**Table 6.20 Distribution of the Journalists by Sharing–News-Information**

Selected variables	News-Information-Sharing			
	Yes (%)	No (%)	Sometimes (%)	Total (%)
Job seniority				
About 3 years (cubs)	46(15.4)	16(25.8)	41(23.3)	103(19.2)
About 5 years (juniors)	28(9.4)	11(17.7)	20(11.4)	59(11.0)
Above 5 years (seniors)	224(75.2)	35(56.5)	115(65.3)	374(69.8)
Total	298(100)	62(100)	176(100)	536(100)
Age category				
0 – 30 years (young)	111(37.4)	34(54.8)	77(44.3)	222(41.7)
31 – 40 years (mature)	117(39.4)	14(22.6)	68(39.1)	199(37.3)
Above 40 years (Old)	69(23.2)	14(22.6)	29(16.7)	112(21.0)
Total	297(100)	62(100)	174(100)	533(100)
Geographic affiliation				
Rural	205(68.8)	21(33.9)	102(58.0)	328(61.2)
Urban	93(31.2)	41(66.1)	74(42.0)	208(38.8)
Total	298(100)	62(100)	176(100)	536(100)

Additionally, very striking variations were found in the responses of journalists subject to sharing news information with other journalists (See table 6.20). Firstly from the perspective of job seniority among cubs, the higher proportions were of those who do not share (25.8%) and share-sometimes (23.3%) compared with those who shared-fully (15.4%). In a similar vein among juniors as well, the higher proportions were of those who reported not sharing (17.7%) and only share-sometimes (11.4%) compared with those who shared-fully (9.4%). In contrast, however, among senior journalists the bigger proportion was of those who mentioned that they shared news information fully (75.2%) compared with those who did not share (56.5%) and shared-sometimes (65.3%).

In conclusion, the findings showed that the trend of sharing news information with other colleagues is found more among senior professionals compared with juniors and cubs. Secondly, with regard to age categories it was observed that among the young category of news-workers the bigger proportions were of those who did not share (54.8%) and shared-sometimes (44.3%) compared with those who shared-fully (37.4%).

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And among the mature category of journalists the proportions of those who shared-fully (39.4%) and sometimes (39.1%) were equal, however, higher than those who did not share (22.6%); whereas, among the old age category the proportion of those who shared-fully (23.2%) was greater than those who shared-not (22.6%) and shared-sometimes (16.7%). In this way again the above results indicate that in the context of age the trend of sharing news information is more stable among old and mature news professionals compared with their young age colleagues. Thirdly, subject to geographic affiliation it was observed that among rural journalists the proportion of those who shared-fully (68.8%) was bigger than those who did not share (33.9%) and shared-sometimes (58.0%); inversely, whereas among urban journalists the proportion of those who did not share (66.1%) was greater than those who shared-fully (31.2%) and sometimes (42.0%). Thus the findings made clear that news information sharing is found more among rural journalists compared with their urban counterparts. To, determine the level of association between sharing-news-information and job seniority, age category, and geographic affiliation of the journalists in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated significant associations at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between sharing – news - information and job seniority,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 536) = 11.73, p = .019$ , Cramer's  $V = .10$ ), showing that on average senior journalists share news-information more than junior and cub journalists.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between sharing-news-information and age category,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 533) = 10.60, p = .031$ , Cramer's  $V = .10$ ), suggesting that on average above 40 years old and mature journalists share news-information more than young age journalists.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between sharing-news-information and geographic affiliation,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 536) = 27.51, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .22$ ), suggesting that on average rural journalists share news-information more than urban journalists.

### **6.6.4 Membership rejection in Sindh press clubs**

As discussed earlier in Sindh the young age and new-comers in news media, for the most part, grumbled in personal conversations with the researcher that they have difficulty in getting press club membership. This practice of not allowing press club

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membership to new-comers was one of the core reasons for the trend of establishing more than one press club. To assess this trend further, it was asked whether any journalist gets rejected from membership of the press club due to a violation of press club constitution or journalistic ethics. In response as presented in table 6.17 out of a total of 541 the highest proportion of over two fifths (45.5%) reported ‘yes’ the press club membership of the journalists is rejected whereas in contrast a proportion of around one third (32.2%) said ‘no’. However, the remainder proportion of over one fifth (22.4%) responded that they ‘Do not know’. Thus the findings pinpoint that, to some extent, in the press clubs of Sindh the action of membership rejection is practiced, because the highest proportion of journalists endorse to such a practice.

**Table 6.21 Distribution of the Journalists by Membership Rejection in Sindh press clubs**

<i>Selected variables</i>	Membership rejection in press club?			Total (%)
	Yes (%)	No (%)	Do not know (%)	
<b>Job seniority</b>				
About 3 years (cubs)	25(10.2)	28(16.1)	50(41.3)	103(19.0)
About 5 years (juniors)	26(10.6)	16(9.2)	21(17.4)	63(11.6)
Above 5 years (seniors)	195(79.3)	130(74.7)	50(41.3)	375(69.3)
<b>Total</b>	<b>246(100)</b>	<b>174(100)</b>	<b>121(100)</b>	<b>541(100)</b>
<b>Age category</b>				
0 – 30 years (young)	68(27.8)	73(42.4)	83(68.6)	224(41.6)
31 – 40 years (mature)	112(45.7)	60(34.9)	29(24.0)	201(37.4)
Above 40 years (Old)	65(26.5)	39(22.7)	9(7.4)	113(21.0)
<b>Total</b>	<b>245(100)</b>	<b>172(100)</b>	<b>121(100)</b>	<b>538(100)</b>
<b>Geographic affiliation</b>				
Rural	186(75.6)	117(67.2)	22(18.2)	325(60.1)
Urban	60(24.4)	57(32.8)	99(81.8)	216(39.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>246(100)</b>	<b>174(100)</b>	<b>121(100)</b>	<b>541(100)</b>

Moreover, regarding the rejection of press club membership some significant differences were found among journalists (See table 6.21). Firstly, in regard to job experience, among both the cubs and the junior category of the journalists the highest proportions (41.3% and 17.4% respectively) were of those who said that they know nothing about press club membership rejection. In contrast, among the senior news professionals the biggest proportion (79.3%) was of those who responded ‘yes’ that press club membership of journalists is rejected in some situations. That finding highlights the fact that compared with cubs and junior journalists, senior journalists are well aware of press club matters because they are more dominant in the clubs. Secondly, from the perspective of age category, the highest proportion of the young reported that they know nothing regarding membership rejection from the press clubs;

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the biggest proportions of those in the mature and old age category (45.7% and 26.5% respectively) were aware of the fact that the press club takes action to reject membership of journalists from the club. Again this finding is consistent with the idea that older journalists tend to dominate what happens in the press clubs and these journalists are “in the know” about the inner workings of the clubs. However, the majority of cubs and junior news-workers mentioned that they did not know about the membership rejection of journalists from press clubs; because due to not being allowed by senior journalists to become members of the press club they remain unaware of such things. Finally, in consideration of geographic affiliation it was also significant to know that among rural journalists the highest proportion (75.6%) mentioned that press club membership of the journalists gets rejected; however, among urban journalists the biggest proportion (81.8%) was of those who said that they know nothing about press club membership rejection. In summary, the finding indicates that it is more likely that newcomers to journalism in urban areas tend to be kept from entering the press club by senior colleagues more than those in rural areas.

To, determine the level of association between press club membership rejection and job seniority, age category, geographic affiliation of the news-workers in Sindh province, Pakistan the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated significant associations at following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between press club membership rejection and job seniority,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 541) = 64.98, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .24$ ), suggesting that on average senior journalists support more that press club membership is rejected than junior and cub journalists.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between press club membership rejection and age category,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 538) = 57.54, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .23$ ), suggesting that on average above 40 years old and mature journalists support more that press club membership is rejected than young journalists.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between press club membership rejection and geographic affiliation,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 541) = 1.17, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .46$ ), suggesting that on average rural journalists support more that press club membership is rejected than urban journalists.



## 6.7 Media consumption by Sindh journalists and their perception regarding credibility and consumption of media

### 6.7.1 Media consumption attitude

In addition to membership in professional organisations or press clubs, the other key factor to serve as an indicator of the level of professionalism among journalists can be their media consumption attitude. Therefore, in this regard to know further the level of professionalism among them a five point ordinal scale ranging from ‘very frequently’ to ‘never’ was applied to collect data about their media consumption attitude.

In this way according to the findings in table 6.22 it was observed that between both print and electronic the first highest consumed news medium by the journalists in Sindh is the newspaper ( $Mdn = 5.00$ ,  $n = 521$ ), about which more than a two third majority (67.0%) of journalists reported to reading a newspaper ‘very frequently’. And the second most consumed news medium by the news people in Sindh is television ( $Mdn = 5.00$ ,  $n = 515$ ), which is viewed ‘very frequently’ by the majority of over three fifths (64.5%) journalists. However, in contrast, the second least consumed news medium among the journalists in Sindh is magazine ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ,  $n = 443$ ) which just 13.5% journalists reported to read ‘very frequently’.

**Table 6.22 Composition of the Sindh Journalists by consuming media ‘very frequently’**

<i>Media type</i>	<b>N</b>	<b>Median</b>	<b><math>S^2</math></b>	<b>Consuming ‘Very frequently’</b>
				<b>(%)</b>
Newspaper	521	5.00	.692	(67.0)
Magazine	443	3.00	1.403	(13.5)
Television	515	5.00	.702	(64.5)
Radio	440	2.00	1.603	(10.20)

Note: For the medians, higher scores equal more consumption. Scale ranges from 5 = *Very frequently* to 1 = *Never*.

And finally the findings mentioned that the least consumed mass medium by the journalists in Sindh is radio ( $Mdn = 2.00$ ,  $n = 440$ ) which is listened to ‘very frequently’ only by the little proportion of one tenth (10.2%) of news professionals in Sindh. In other words, overall, the findings indicated that in print media the most read mass medium is newspaper (67.0%) whereas in electronic media the most consumed mass medium is television (64.5%).

(1) To assess the impact of journalist type, ownership type, education level and geographic affiliation upon the mass media consumption by journalists in Sindh a Mann-Whitney  $U$  test was run which largely resulted in no statistically significant differences in the mass medium consumption attitude of journalists with the exception of the following: Firstly, in the context of journalist type it was found that in newspaper consumption news-reporting journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .61$ ) compared with newsroom journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .83$ ) read newspapers more ( $U = 25377.50, z = -3.08, p = .002$ ). Secondly, in regard to geographic affiliation rural journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .60$ ) compared with urban journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .80$ ) were more newspaper readers ( $U = 29882.500, z = -2.42, p = .015$ ).

(2) To assess the impact of organisation type, job seniority, media language, monthly income and age upon the mass media consumption attitude of the journalists in Sindh a Kurskal-Wallis Test was run which largely resulted in no statistically significant differences in the attitude of journalists to consume mass media subject to above variables except the following: Firstly, in the perspective of organisation type in newspaper consumption wire-service journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .57$ ) compared with broadcast ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .77$ ) and print journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .65$ ) are more readers,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 521) = 7.87, p = .020$ . However, in television consumption broadcast journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .42$ ) compared with wire-service ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .52$ ) and print media journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = 1.56$ ) are more viewers  $\chi^2 (2, n = 515) = 13.60, p = .001$ . Secondly, in the perspective of job seniority it was observed that in newspaper consumption senior journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .65$ ) compared with junior ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .90$ ) and cub journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .66$ ) read the newspaper more,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 521) = 5.93, p = .051$ . Thirdly, in the context of age in television consumption young journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .57$ ) compared with mature ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .81$ ) and old age category of journalists ( $Mdn = 5.00, S^2 = .77$ ) view more television,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 509) = 9.05, p = .011$ .

### **6.7.2 Perception about credibility and consumption of news media**

This study of journalists includes in its sample those who work in print, electronic and wire-service media. Therefore, to know more about their perception of the credibility of both print and electronic media, first it was simply asked from them their perception of which medium has more credibility among the audiences in Sindh. In addition, due to the existence of various ethnicities the Pakistani media are multi-lingual, but in Sindh

the major languages used in media are Sindhi, Urdu and English. Therefore, the opinions of journalists were also sought about the credibility of English-language versus Sindhi-language and Urdu-language media.

### 6.7.2.1 Credibility of electronic versus print media

Regarding credibility-comparison between both print and electronic media, as shown in table 6.23 out of a total of 525 the proportion of over three fifths (61.0%) of journalists said ‘print media’ have more credibility among audiences in Sindh, whereas the remaining proportion of almost two fifths (39.0%) of journalists reported that ‘broadcast media’ have more credibility than print. In this way according to the findings the majority of journalists in Sindh perceive that compared with electronic the print media have more credibility among audiences in their view.

**Table 6.23 Composition of the Journalists by Media Credibility and Consumption Related Variables**

<i>Media credibility and consumption related variables</i>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percent (%)</b>
<b>Print versus broadcast media</b>		
Print	320	61.0
Electronic	205	39.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>525</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>English versus Sindhi/Urdu media</b>		
More credible	242	42.9
About the same	140	24.8
Less credible	143	25.4
Not sure	39	6.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>564</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Widely consumed news medium</b>		
Radio	43	8.1
Newspaper	279	52.2
Television	212	39.7
News magazine	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>534</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Further, regarding credibility of print versus electronic media (See table 6.24) firstly, with regard to organisation type, among print journalists the percentage of those who rated print media more credible (74.7%) was higher than those who chose electronic media as being more credible (42.4%). However, among broadcast and wire-service journalists the proportions of those who considered electronic media more credible (49.8% and 7.8% respectively), were larger than the percentages of those who selected print as being most credible, (20.0% and 5.3% respectively). Secondly, in the

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perspective of media language it was observed that among English-language media journalists the proportion of those who considered print media more credible (10.6%) was equal to the proportion that selected electronic media (10.8%). However, among Sindhi-language media journalists the proportion of print (65.6%) versus electronic (53.8%) media was higher. In contrast, among Urdu-language media journalists the proportion of electronic media (35.8%) compared with print (23.8%) was higher. Thus, in Sindh, among English-language media journalists both print and electronic media have equal credibility; among Sindhi-language media journalists print media are more credible; among Urdu-language media journalists the electronic media are more credible. Thirdly, in the terms of job seniority, among cub journalists the 27.8% chose electronic media as most credible, while 16.6% chose print media as most credible. However, the proportions of junior and senior journalists who considered print media most credible were 12.5% and 70.9% respectively, whereas the proportions that selected electronic media as most credible were 10.7% and 61.5% respectively. This underlines the fact that in the perception of cub journalists electronic media are more credible, but junior and senior journalists rate the credibility of print media more highly. Fourthly, in terms of media ownership among private media journalists the proportion of those who rated print media more credible (96.9%) was higher than those who considered electronic media highly credible (89.3%). Among state-run media news people the proportion of those who perceived electronic media as being more credible was higher (10.7%) compared with those who chose print media (3.1%). In summary, in the perception of private media journalists print media are more credible whereas contrary to this state-run media journalists think that electronic media enjoys more credibility.

Finally, it was also interesting to know that in the terms of education, among school/college educated journalists the proportion of those who rated the credibility of print media most highly was 39.1% compared with 30.5% who chose electronic media. However, among university educated journalists the proportion that chose electronic media (69.5%) was higher than the proportion that chose print (60.9%). In this way the findings point out that in the perception of school/college educated journalists print media are more credible whereas in the eyes of university educated journalists electronic media are more credible.

**Table 6.24 Distribution of the Journalists by Credibility of Print versus Electronic media**

<i>Selected variables</i>	Which media is more credible?		
	Print (%)	Electronic (%)	Total (%)
<b>Organisation type</b>			
Print	239(74.7)	87(42.4)	326(62.1)
Broadcast	64(20.0)	102(49.8)	166(31.6)
Wire-service	17(5.3)	16(7.8)	33(6.3)
<b>Total</b>	<b>320(100)</b>	<b>205(100)</b>	<b>525(100)</b>
<b>Media language</b>			
English	34(10.6)	22(10.8)	56(10.7)
Sindhi	210(65.6)	109(53.4)	319(60.9)
Urdu	76(23.8)	73(35.8)	149(28.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>320(100)</b>	<b>204(100)</b>	<b>524(100)</b>
<b>Job seniority</b>			
About 3 years (cubs)	53(16.6)	57(27.8)	110(21.0)
About 5 years (juniors)	40(12.5)	22(10.7)	62(11.8)
Above 5 years (seniors)	227(70.9)	126(61.5)	353(67.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>320(100)</b>	<b>205(100)</b>	<b>525(100)</b>
<b>Ownership</b>			
Private	310(96.9)	183(89.3)	493(93.9)
Government	10(3.1)	22(10.7)	32(6.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>320(100)</b>	<b>205(100)</b>	<b>525(100)</b>
<b>Education</b>			
School/college	125(39.1)	62(30.5)	187(35.8)
University	195(60.9)	141(69.5)	336(64.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>320(100)</b>	<b>203(100)</b>	<b>523(100)</b>

To determine the level of association between print versus electronic media credibility and organisation type, job seniority, media language, media ownership and education level of the news people in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations among above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between print versus electronic media credibility and organisation type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 525) = 57.15, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .33$ , suggesting that on average print journalists believed more than broadcast and wire-service journalists that print media versus to electronic media are more credible.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between print versus electronic media credibility and media language,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 524) = 9.39, p = .009$ , Cramer's  $V = .13$ , suggesting that on average Sindhi media

journalists believed more than English and Urdu media journalists that print media versus to electronic media are more credible.

- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between print versus electronic media credibility and job seniority,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 525) = 9.53, p = .008$ , Cramer's  $V = .13$ ), suggesting that on average senior and junior journalists believed more than cub journalists that print media versus to electronic media are credible.
- (iv) There was a significant association (with Yates continuity correction) between print versus electronic media credibility and media ownership,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 525) = 11.33, p = .001$ ,  $\Phi = .15$ ), suggesting that on average private media journalists believed more than government media journalists that print media versus to electronic media are more credible.
- (v) There was a significant association (with Yates continuity correction) between print versus electronic media credibility and education,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 523) = 3.56, p = .059$ ,  $\Phi = .08$ ), suggesting that on average school/college educated journalists believed more than university educated journalists that print media versus to electronic media are more credible.

#### 6.7.2.2 Credibility of English versus Sindhi/Urdu media

The perception of journalists in Sindh varied strikingly about the credibility of English versus Sindhi/Urdu language media. According to table 6.23 out of a total of 564 over two fifths (42.9%) of the journalists surveyed reported that compared with Sindhi-language and Urdu-language media, English-language media, both print and electronic, are more credible in Sindh. However in contrast the proportion of one fourth (25.4%) of the respondents said that, compared with Sindhi-language and Urdu-language media, English-language media are less credible, whereas the third proportion of one fourth (24.8%) journalists viewed English-language and Sindhi-language/Urdu-language media as 'about the same' level in credibility. Finally, the remaining proportion of only 6.9% of the respondents reported themselves 'not sure' in deciding the credibility comparison between English-language versus Sindhi-language/Urdu-language media. In this way the findings show that overall the highest proportion of journalists perceived that compared with Sindhi-language/Urdu-language media, English-language media are more credible.

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Moreover, about the credibility of English-language versus Sindhi-language/Urdu-language media (See table 6.25) firstly, in the context of various language media, among English-language journalists the proportion of those who considered that the English-language media are more credible (16.6%) was higher than the proportions of those from this group who considered English compared with other language media are less credible (2.1%), have about the same credibility (7.1%) or were not sure (7.7%). However, in contrast, among Urdu-language media journalists the proportion of those who considered that English-language media are less credible than Sindhi-language and Urdu-language media (35.0%) was higher than others. As far as the journalists of Sindhi-language media are concerned among them the proportion of those who perceived that the credibility of English-language media is about the same as Sindhi-language and Urdu-language media (68.6%) was bigger than others. In summary, the findings indicate that from the viewpoint of English-language journalists the English media are more credible than media in other languages. However, in the opinion of Urdu-language media journalists English media are less credible than Sindhi-language and Urdu-language media; whereas Sindhi-language media journalists said that the credibility of English-language, Sindhi-language and Urdu-language media are about the same.

Secondly, in regards to monthly income, among unpaid journalists the highest proportion (35.9%) was of those who were 'not sure' about rating the credibility of English versus Sindhi/Urdu media. In comparison, however, among better-paid and lucratively-paid journalists the highest proportions (12.8% and 9.9% respectively) were of those who perceived that English-language media compared with the media of the Sindhi and Urdu language are more credible. Among under-paid journalists the proportion of those who considered that all English, Sindhi and Urdu language media have about the same credibility (56.4%) was higher than others. The belief by better-paid and lucratively paid journalists that English language media are more credible indicates that financial stability of news people may be playing role to produce quality journalism or news, because earlier in the analysis of monthly income it was found that on average financial stability in the form of monthly income was higher among English language media journalists than the journalists of Sindhi/Urdu language media journalists. Thirdly, in the perspective of education, among school/college educated journalists the proportion of those who deemed the English-language media less credible (46.5%) was higher than the proportion of those in this group who rated the

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English media either more credible or as credible as the other linguistic media. Among university educated journalists the proportions of those who perceived English-language media as more credible (69.2%) and those who were (not sure) (69.2%) were higher than the proportion of those who considered it less credible.

**Table 6.25 Distribution of the Journalists by Credibility of English versus Sindhi/Urdu language media**

<i>Selected variables</i>	<b>English-language media versus Sindhi/ Urdu-language media are?</b>				
	<b>More credible</b>	<b>About same</b>	<b>Less credible</b>	<b>Not sure</b>	<b>Total</b>
	<b>(%)</b>	<b>(%)</b>	<b>(%)</b>	<b>(%)</b>	<b>(%)</b>
<b>Media language</b>					
English	40(16.6)	10(7.1)	3(2.1)	3(7.7)	56(9.9)
Sindhi	135(56.0)	96(68.6)	90(62.9)	24(61.5)	345(61.3)
Urdu	66(27.4)	34(24.3)	50(35.0)	12(30.8)	162(28.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>241(100)</b>	<b>140(100)</b>	<b>143(100)</b>	<b>39(100)</b>	<b>563(100)</b>
<b>Monthly income</b>					
Unpaid	51(21.1)	23(16.4)	26(18.2)	14(35.9)	114(20.2)
Underpaid	113(46.7)	79(56.4)	68(47.6)	16(41.0)	276(48.9)
Better-paid	31(12.8)	16(11.4)	9(6.3)	3(7.7)	59(10.5)
Lucratively-paid	23(9.5)	10(7.1)	6(4.2)	2(5.1)	41(7.3)
No answer	24(9.9)	12(8.6)	34(23.8)	4(10.3)	74(13.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>242(100)</b>	<b>140(100)</b>	<b>143(100)</b>	<b>39(100)</b>	<b>564(100)</b>
<b>Education</b>					
School/college	74(30.8)	51(36.4)	66(46.5)	12(30.8)	203(36.2)
University	166(69.2)	89(63.6)	76(53.5)	27(69.2)	358(63.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>240(100)</b>	<b>140(100)</b>	<b>142(100)</b>	<b>39(100)</b>	<b>561(100)</b>
<b>Geographic affiliation</b>					
Rural journalist	132(54.5)	72(51.4)	97(67.8)	25(64.1)	326(57.8)
Urban journalist	110(45.5)	68(48.6)	46(32.2)	14(35.9)	238(42.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>242(100)</b>	<b>140(100)</b>	<b>143(100)</b>	<b>39(100)</b>	<b>564(100)</b>

Finally, in regard to geographic affiliation among rural journalists the proportion of those who thought that English language media are less credible (67.8%) was higher than those who considered it more credible. In contrast among urban journalists the proportion of those who considered English-language media to have about the same credibility as Sindhi and Urdu-language media (48.6%) was bigger. In summary rural journalists think that English media are less credible than Sindhi and Urdu-language



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media, whereas urban journalists perceived that all English, Sindhi and Urdu-language media have about the same credibility. The reason to deem English-language media less credible by rural journalists, more likely, may be because the majority of rural journalists work for Sindhi/Urdu language media.

To determine the level of association between English versus Sindhi and Urdu-language media credibility and media language, monthly income, education and geographic affiliation of the news-workers in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations among above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between the credibility of English versus Sindhi/Urdu media and media language,  $\chi^2 (6, n = 563) = 26.34, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .15$ ), suggesting that on average English media journalists believed more than Urdu media journalists that English media versus to Sindhi/Urdu media are more credible; whereas Sindhi media journalists believed more that English, Sindhi and Urdu media have about the same credibility.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between the credibility of English versus Sindhi/Urdu media and monthly income,  $\chi^2 (12, n = 564) = 33.07, p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .14$ ), suggesting that on average better-paid and lucratively paid journalists believed more than unpaid, underpaid and not answering to the monthly income question journalists that English media versus to Sindhi/Urdu media are more credible.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between the credibility of English versus Sindhi/Urdu media and education,  $\chi^2 (3, n = 561) = 9.99, p = .019$ , Cramer's  $V = .13$ ), suggesting that on average university educated journalists believed more than school/college educated journalists that English media are more credible than Sindhi/Urdu media.
- (iv) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between the credibility of English versus Sindhi/Urdu media and geographic affiliation,  $\chi^2 (3, n = 564) = 9.91, p = .019$ , Cramer's  $V = .13$ ), showing that on average urban journalists believed that English media have more or about the same credibility to Sindhi/Urdu media, whereas rural journalists believed more that English media are less credible versus to Sindhi/Urdu media.

### **6.7.2.3 Widely consumed medium in Sindh in perception of Sindh journalists**

In the same way as the views of Sindh journalists regarding the credibility of print and broadcast media were analysed, they were also asked for their view on the most widely consumed news medium in this region (see table 6.23). Out of a total of 534 respondents the first highest proportion of over fifty percent (52.2%) reported 'newspaper' as the most widely consumed news medium in Sindh and the second highest proportion of almost two fifths (39.7%) mentioned the 'television' as the most widely consumed news medium; the remaining small proportion of less than one tenth (8.1%) of the respondents said that 'radio' is the most widely consumed news medium in Sindh. The survey therefore found that a considerable majority, 52.2% of journalists perceived that among all types of traditional news media the most widely consumed news medium is 'newspaper' and the second one television. Additionally, it was also significant to know that no journalist reported that the 'news magazine' is widely consumed news medium in Sindh; in other words the least popular traditional news medium in Sindh is the magazine.

Moreover, about widely consumed news media (see table 6.26), in terms of organisation type, among print journalists the proportion of those who rated the newspaper as most popular was 68.5%, compared with 52.8% for television and 58.1% for radio. In contrast among broadcast and wire-service journalists the proportions of those who rated television most popular (35.8% and 11.3% respectively) were larger than newspaper (29.4% and 2.2% respectively) and radio (34.9% and 7.0% respectively). Thus the findings indicate that according to the opinion of print journalists the newspaper is the most widely consumed medium; in contrast, in the perception of broadcast and wire-service news people, television is the most widely consumed news medium.

Secondly, in the context of media ownership it was observed that among private media journalists the proportion of newspaper (97.8%) was greater than radio (90.7%) and television (90.6%). Conversely, among state-run media journalists the proportions of those who considered television (9.4%) and radio (9.3%) most widely consumed were almost equal and higher than newspaper (2.2%). In conclusion, in the eyes of private journalists the newspaper is the most widely consumed medium whereas state-run journalists think that television and radio are more widely consumed news media than the newspaper.

**Table 6.26 Distribution of the Journalists by Widely Consumed Medium**

<b>Widely consumed news medium in Sindh, province, Pakistan</b>					
<i>Selected variables</i>	<b>Radio</b> (%)	<b>Newspaper</b> (%)	<b>Television</b> (%)	<b>Magazine</b> (%)	<b>Total</b> (%)
<b>Organisation type</b>					
Print	25(58.1)	191(68.5)	112(52.8)	0(.0)	328(61.4)
Broadcast	15(34.9)	82(29.4)	76(35.8)	0(.0)	173(32.4)
Wire-service	3(7.0)	6(2.2)	24(11.3)	0(.0)	33(6.2)
<b>Total</b>	<b>43(100)</b>	<b>279(100)</b>	<b>212(100)</b>	<b>0(.0)</b>	<b>534(100)</b>
<b>Ownership</b>					
Private	39(90.7)	273(97.8)	192(90.6)	0(.0)	504(94.4)
Government	4( 9.3)	6( 2.2)	20(9.4)	0(.0)	30(5.6)
<b>Total</b>	<b>43(100)</b>	<b>279(100)</b>	<b>212(100)</b>	<b>0(.0)</b>	<b>534(100)</b>
<b>Media language</b>					
English	3(7.0)	16(5.7)	37(17.5)	0(.0)	56(10.5)
Sindhi	31(72.1)	189(67.7)	111(52.6)	0(.0)	331(62.1)
Urdu	9(20.9)	74(26.5)	63(29.9)	0(.0)	146(27.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>43(100)</b>	<b>279(100)</b>	<b>211(100)</b>	<b>0(.0)</b>	<b>533(100)</b>
<b>Monthly income</b>					
Unpaid	9(20.9)	63(22.6)	34(16.0)	0(.0)	106(19.9)
Underpaid	22(51.2)	150(53.8)	104(49.1)	0(.0)	276(51.7)
Better-paid	3(7.0)	22(7.9)	31(14.6)	0(.0)	56(10.5)
Lucratively-paid	4(9.3)	9(3.2)	27(12.7)	0(.0)	40(7.5)
No answer	5(11.6)	35(12.5)	16(7.5)	0(.0)	56(10.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>43(100)</b>	<b>279(100)</b>	<b>212(100)</b>	<b>0(.0)</b>	<b>534(100)</b>
<b>Geographic affiliation</b>					
Rural journalist	21(48.8)	172(61.6)	106(50.0)	0(.0)	299(56.0)
Urban journalist	22(51.2)	107(38.4)	106(50.0)	0(.0)	235(44.0)
<b>Total</b>	<b>43(100)</b>	<b>279(100)</b>	<b>212(100)</b>	<b>0(.0)</b>	<b>534(100)</b>

Thirdly, in the regard to media language among English-language media journalists, 17.5% chose television as the most widely consumed news medium, higher than radio (7.0%) and newspaper (5.7%); in contrast, 72.1% of the Sindhi-language media journalists chose radio (72.1%) as the most widely-consumed medium, compared with newspaper (67.7%) and television (52.6%). As far as Urdu-language media journalists are concerned among them the proportion of television (29.9%) was greater than radio (20.9%) and the newspaper (26.5%). In conclusion the findings show that the journalists of the various media languages differ greatly in their perception regarding the most widely consumed medium in Sindh. In the opinion of the English-language and Urdu-language media journalists, television is the most widely consumed medium;

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however, Sindhi-language media journalists believe that radio is the most widely consumed medium in Sindh.

Fourthly, from the perspective of monthly income it was observed that among un-paid and under-paid journalists the proportions of those who chose newspaper as the most widely consumed medium (22.6% and 53.8% respectively) were higher than radio (20.9% and 51.2% respectively) and television (16.0% and 49.1% respectively). On the contrary among better-paid and lucratively-paid journalists the proportions of those who identified television as the most popular medium (14.6% and 12.7% respectively) were bigger than those who chose newspaper (7.9% and 3.2% respectively) or radio (7.0% and 9.3 respectively). Therefore, the findings reveal that in the opinion of un-paid and under-paid journalists the newspaper is the most widely consumed news medium whereas in the perception of better-paid and lucratively-paid journalists the most widely consumed is television. Finally, in terms of geographic affiliation, among rural journalists the proportion of those who chose newspaper (61.6%) was higher than those who chose radio (48.8%) or television (50.0%); whereas in contrast, among urban journalists the proportions of those who chose television (50.0%) and radio (51.2%) were almost equal and bigger than the proportion of those who chose newspaper. In conclusion in the perception of rural journalists the newspaper is the most widely consumed medium; whereas in contrast among urban journalists television and radio are the most widely consumed news media in Sindh. To determine the level of association between widely consumed news medium and organisation type, ownership type, media language, monthly income and geographic affiliation of the journalists in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations among above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between widely consumed news medium and organisation type,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 534) = 22.95, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .14$ ), suggesting that on average print journalists believed more that newspaper is widely consumed medium, whereas broadcast and wire-service journalists believed more that television is widely consumed medium.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between widely consumed news medium and ownership type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 543) = 13.24, p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .15$ ), suggesting that on average private media journalists believed more that newspaper is widely consumed medium,

however government media journalists believed more that television is widely consumed medium.

- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between widely consumed news medium and media language,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 533) = 22.86$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .14$ ), suggesting that on average English and Urdu media journalists believed more that television is widely consumed, whereas Sindhi media journalists believed more that radio is widely consumed medium.
- (iv) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between widely consumed news medium and monthly income,  $\chi^2 (8, n = 534) = 26.58$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .15$ ), showing that on average unpaid, underpaid and not answering to the monthly income question journalists believed more that newspaper is widely consumed, whereas better-paid and lucratively paid believed more that television is widely consumed medium.
- (v) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between widely consumed news medium and geographic affiliation,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 534) = 7.60$ ,  $p = .022$ , Cramer's  $V = .11$ ), suggesting that on average rural journalists believed more that newspaper is widely consumed, however, urban journalist believed more that radio is widely consumed medium.

### **6.8 Media freedom, professional autonomy and accreditation**

#### **6.8.1 Media freedom and professional autonomy**

In developing countries or in countries where political systems are not yet as democratic as the United Kingdom and the United States of America, the right of media freedom is being fought for by news media people. Because 'media and political science scholars have suggested that freedom of the press in any given society is a function of the relevant country's political ecology' (Himmelboim & Limor, 2008, p. 236). Moreover, the history of the Pakistani press is without question a unique one, due mainly to the fact that so much of that history has unfolded under the shadow of military dictatorships; it is obvious, in such a situation, just how free the media is going to be. And it is not only military rulers who have clamped down on media freedom; this has happened under democratic governments as well. Against this background of limited media freedom Sindh newspeople were asked how they perceive the present state of media freedom and their professional autonomy. For that purpose a 3-item five point ordinal scale with

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decreasing order from ‘complete freedom’ to ‘no freedom at all’ was put in the questionnaire about media freedom and professional autonomy variables.

**Table 6.27 Composition of the Journalists by Media Freedom and Professional Autonomy**

Freedom and autonomy variables	N	Mean	Median	S <sup>2</sup>	Percentage saying “complete freedom”
1.General media freedom	571	2.92	3.00	1.02	8.4
2.Story selection freedom	569	3.64	3.00	1.15	29.2
3.Freedom to emphasize the various aspects of news story	567	3.79	4.00	1.11	34.0

Note: For the means and medians, higher scores equal more freedom. Scale ranges from 5 = Complete freedom to 1 = No freedom at all.

In response, according to the table 6.27 it was observed that all three items regarding general media freedom and professional autonomy got a percentage score of less than fifty percent in the context of the ‘complete freedom’ option. Additionally, the lowest percentage score was assigned to general media freedom about which less than one tenth of the respondents (8.4%) said that the media have ‘complete freedom’ in Sindh. However, regarding professional autonomy the one third (34.0%) of the news people said that they have ‘complete freedom in deciding which aspects of the story should be emphasized more’. Moreover, more than one quarter (29.2%) of the journalists mentioned that they have ‘complete freedom to select news story on their own’. This percentage is higher than that given by journalists in other countries; In Algeria, 16% (Kirat, 1998, p. 333), New Taiwan, 6% (Lo, 1998, p. 80), and in Korea 22% (Auh et al., 1998, p. 60) of the journalists who completed a similar survey said that they had complete or almost complete freedom in selecting and presenting news stories. Overall, the findings indicate that in the opinion of a great majority (91.6%) of news-workers in Sindh the media there are not completely free. Likewise, well over a two thirds majority (70.8%) of the respondents in Sindh said that they do not have complete freedom in the areas of ‘select news story’ and ‘emphasizing various aspects of the news story’; two thirds (66.0%) mentioned that they have not got ‘complete freedom’.

**1:** To assess the impact of journalist type, ownership type, education level and geographic affiliation upon the general media freedom and professional autonomy of the journalists in Sindh a Mann-Whitney *U* test was run which largely resulted in no statistically significant differences except the following: Firstly, in the context of ownership type it was found that private media journalists (*Mdn* = 4.00) compared with state-run media journalists (*Mdn* = 3.00) had more freedom to select news stories (*U* =

4788.500,  $z = -4.633$ ,  $p = .000$ ). Similarly, in emphasizing the various aspects of the news story private media journalists ( $Mdn = 4.00$ ) compared with state-run media journalists ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ) had more freedom ( $U = 6746.000$ ,  $z = -2.36$ ,  $p = .018$ ). Secondly, in regard to geographic affiliation in news story selection rural journalists ( $Mdn = 4.00$ ) compared with urban journalists ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ) had more freedom ( $U = 34884.000$ ,  $z = -2.485$ ,  $p = .013$ ). And as well in emphasizing the various aspects of a news story rural journalists ( $Mdn = 4.00$ ) compared with urban journalists ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ) felt more freedom ( $U = 35012.000$ ,  $z = -2.296$ ,  $p = .022$ ).

**2:** To assess the impact of organisation type, job seniority, media language, monthly income and age upon the general media freedom and professional autonomy of the journalists in Sindh a Kurskal-Wallis Test was run which largely resulted in no statistically significant differences except for the following: Firstly, in the perspective of organisation type print journalists ( $Mdn=4.00$ ) compared with broadcast journalists ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ) and wire-service journalists ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ) have more freedom to select news stories,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 569) = 7.138$ ,  $p = .028$ . Secondly, in the perspective of job seniority it was observed that junior journalists ( $Mdn = 4.00$ ) compared with cubs ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ) and senior journalists ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ) considered to the news media in Pakistan more free,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 571) = 7.24$ ,  $p = .027$ . Thirdly, in the context of media language English-language media journalists ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ,  $S^2 = .99$ ) and Sindhi-language media journalists ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ,  $S^2 = 1.00$ ) compared with Urdu-language media journalists ( $Mdn = 3.00$ ,  $S^2 = 1.06$ ) considered the news media more free,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 570) = 6.06$ ,  $p = .048$ .

### **6.8.2 Accreditation status of the Sindh journalists**

Another indication of the government's ability to influence journalists and curtail media freedom is its power to issue accreditation cards to journalists. Those who do have these accreditation cards are granted access to government-arranged programmes and events and press conferences. These accreditation cards, which are valid for one year, are issued by government information officers to journalists; these cards give the holder the right to attend official functions or meetings taking place in that district. Therefore, from the perspective of this study as shown in table 6.28 out of a total of 558, 52.2% of the respondents said that they have government accreditation cards; the remainder, 47.8%, responded that they were not accredited. Hence, in conclusion the findings

indicate that apparently almost fifty percent of the journalists (47.8%) have no access or entry to report the official events conducted at government level.

**Table 6.28 Composition of the Journalists by Accreditation Card Related Variables**

<i>Accreditation card related variables</i>	<b>Number</b>	<b>(%)</b>
<b>Having accreditation card</b>		
Yes	291	(52.2)
No	267	(47.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>558</b>	<b>(100.0)</b>
<b>Is accreditation card issued on merit?</b>		
Yes	160	(28.7)
No	265	(47.5)
I do not know	133	(23.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>558</b>	<b>(100.0)</b>

Moreover, regarding having accreditation cards (See table 6.29) firstly in the context of journalist type it was observed that among newsroom journalists the proportion of non-accredited journalists (52.1%) was greater than accredited (12.4%). However, in contrast, among news-reporting professionals the proportion of accredited journalists (87.6%) was greater than non-accredited (47.9%). Secondly, from the perspective of media organisation among print media and wire-service media the proportions of accredited journalists (62.9% and 10.0% respectively) were greater than non-accredited (59.9% and 2.2% respectively); in contrast, among broadcast journalists the proportion of non-accredited journalists (37.8%) was bigger than accredited. Thirdly, in the context of job seniority, it was found that among cubs and junior journalists the proportions of non-accredited journalists (31.1% and 16.1% respectively) were higher than those who had accreditation (9.6% and 7.9% respectively), however, among senior journalists the proportion of accredited journalists (82.5%) was bigger than non-accredited (52.8%). Fourthly, in the terms of media language, among English-language and Urdu-language media journalists the proportions of accredited journalists (12.5% and 34.9% respectively) were bigger than those of non-accredited journalists (7.9% and 28.4% respectively). However, on the contrary among Sindhi-language media journalists the proportion of non-accredited journalists (70.8%) was higher than accredited (52.6%). Fifthly, in the regard to ownership among private media journalists the proportion of non-accredited journalists (97.0%) was bigger than accredited (91.8%), whereas among state-run media journalists the proportion of accredited journalists (8.2%) was bigger than non-accredited (3.0%); which mentions that on average compared with private media journalists the state-run journalists are assigned



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more accreditation. Finally, in the context of age, among young journalists the proportion of non-accredited journalists (56.8%) compared with accredited (28.7%) was greater; however, in contrast among mature and old age category of journalists the proportions of accredited journalists (44.3% and 27.0% respectively) were higher than non-accredited journalists (30.1% and 13.2% respectively). It indicates that compared with those in the young category, journalists in the mature and old age category are more likely to be accredited.

**Table 6.29 Distribution of the Journalists by accreditation card**

<i>Selected variables</i>	Having accreditation card?		Total (%)
	Yes (%)	No (%)	
<b>Journalist type</b>			
Newsroom	36(12.4)	139(52.1)	175(31.4)
News-reporting	255(87.6)	128(47.9)	383(68.6)
<b>Total</b>	<b>291(100)</b>	<b>267(100)</b>	<b>558(100)</b>
<b>Organisation type</b>			
Print	183(62.9)	160(59.9)	343(61.5)
Broadcast	79(27.1)	101(37.8)	180(32.3)
Wire-service	29(10.0)	6(2.2)	35(6.3)
<b>Total</b>	<b>291(100)</b>	<b>267(100)</b>	<b>558(100)</b>
<b>Job seniority</b>			
About 3 years (cub)	28(9.6)	83(31.1)	111(19.9)
About 5 years (junior)	23(7.9)	43(16.1)	66(11.8)
Above 5 years (senior)	240(82.5)	141(52.8)	381(68.3)
<b>Total</b>	<b>291(100)</b>	<b>267(100)</b>	<b>558(100)</b>
<b>Media language</b>			
English	36(12.5)	21(7.9)	57(10.3)
Sindhi	152(52.6)	189(70.8)	341(61.3)
Urdu	101(34.9)	57(21.3)	158(28.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>289(100)</b>	<b>267(100)</b>	<b>556(100)</b>
<b>Ownership type</b>			
Private	267(91.8)	259(97.0)	526(94.3)
Government	24(8.2)	8(3.0)	32(5.7)
<b>Total</b>	<b>291(100)</b>	<b>267(100)</b>	<b>558(100)</b>
<b>Age category</b>			
0 – 30 years (young)	83(28.7)	151(56.8)	234(42.2)
31 - 40 years (mature)	28(44.3)	80(30.1)	208(37.5)
Above 40 years (old)	78(27.0)	35(13.2)	113(20.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>289(100)</b>	<b>266(100)</b>	<b>555(100)</b>

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To determine the level of association between accreditation and journalist type, organisation type, job seniority, media language, media ownership and age of the news people in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations among above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Yates continuity correction) between accreditation and journalist type,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 558) = 100.05, p = .000$ ,  $\Phi = -.42$ ), suggesting that on average news-reporting journalists were more accredited than newsroom journalists.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between accreditation and organisation type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 558) = 18.34, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .18$ ), suggesting that on average print and wire-service journalists were more accredited than broadcast journalists.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between accreditation and job seniority,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 558) = 58.11, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .32$ ), suggesting that on average senior journalists were more accredited than junior and cub journalists.
- (iv) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between accreditation and media language,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 556) = 19.37, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .18$ ), suggesting that on average English and Urdu media journalists were more accredited than Sindhi media journalists.
- (v) There was a significant association (with Yates continuity correction) between accreditation and media ownership,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 558) = 6.16, p = .013$ ,  $\Phi = -.11$ ), suggesting that on average government media journalists were more accredited than private media journalists.
- (vi) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between accreditation and age,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 555) = 46.32, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .289$ ), showing that on average above 40 years old and mature journalists were more accredited than young journalists.

Finally, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of rating the importance of news media roles subject to accreditation of journalists. As a result it was observed that largely there were no significant differences between accredited and non-accredited journalists regarding the importance of media functions except the following one item that under the 'information analysis and public advocacy'

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function non-accredited journalists ( $M = 4.67$ ) compared with accredited journalists ( $M = 4.55$ ) assigned greater importance to the item 'giving ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs' ( $t = -2.03$ ;  $p = .04$ ).

Added to that, a striking variation was also found in the opinion of journalists regarding the government's criteria for awarding accreditation cards. As shown in the table 6.28, out of a total of 558 journalists nearly fifty percent (47.5%) reported that accreditation cards are not awarded on merit and over one fifth (23.8%) of the journalists said that 'I do not know' what the criteria are; more than one fourth (28.7%) said that journalists are accredited on merit. In summary the survey highlights the fact that on the one hand almost fifty percent (47.8%) of the journalists in the sample mentioned that they are not accredited by the government; on the other hand the basis for awarding accreditation is questionable, because almost half of the journalists (47.5%) say that the accreditation cards are not issued on merit. These findings support the notion that the government may use the accreditation cards as a means to influence journalists to get news reports slanted in its favour by issuing the accreditation cards to its favourite journalists.

**Table 6.30 Distribution of the Journalists by Merit of the Accreditation awarding**

<i>Selected variables</i>	Are accreditation cards awarded on merit?			Total (%)
	Yes (%)	No (%)	I do not know (%)	
<b>Journalist type</b>				
Newsroom	23(14.4)	87(32.8)	64(48.1)	174(31.2)
News-reporting	137(85.6)	178(67.2)	69(51.9)	384(68.8)
<b>Total</b>	<b>160(100)</b>	<b>265(100)</b>	<b>133(100)</b>	<b>558(100)</b>
<b>Organisation type</b>				
Print	114(71.2)	148(55.8)	81(60.9)	343(61.5)
Broadcast	40(25.0)	101(38.1)	40(30.1)	181(32.4)
Wire-service	6(3.8)	16(6.0)	12(9.0)	34(6.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>160(100)</b>	<b>265(100)</b>	<b>133(100)</b>	<b>558(100)</b>
<b>Age category</b>				
0 -30 years (young)	51(31.9)	100(38.0)	81(60.9)	232(41.7)
31-40 years (mature)	61(38.1)	110(41.8)	38(28.6)	209(37.6)
Above 40 years (old)	48(30.0)	53(20.2)	14(10.5)	115(20.7)
<b>Total</b>	<b>160(100)</b>	<b>263(100)</b>	<b>133(100)</b>	<b>556(100)</b>
<b>Education level</b>				
School/college	76(47.8)	83(31.3)	45(33.8)	204(36.6)
University	83(52.2)	182(68.7)	88(66.2)	353(63.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>159(100)</b>	<b>265(100)</b>	<b>133(100)</b>	<b>557(100)</b>

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Additionally, about the merit of awarding accreditation status to the journalists (table 6.30) firstly, in the context of journalist type among newsroom workers the proportion of those who did not know about the merit (48.1%) was greater than those who said journalists are accredited-on-merit (14.4%) and those who said journalists are not-accredited on merit (32.8%). In contrast, however, among news-reporting journalists the proportion of those who said journalists are accredited-on-merit (85.6%) was greater than the other. In this way it seems according to the findings that compared with newsroom journalists the news-reporting journalists are more satisfied with the *modus operandi* of government for accrediting the journalists.

Secondly, in regard to organisation type among print media journalists the proportion of those who said journalists are accredited-on-merit (71.2%) was bigger than those who said journalists are not-accredited-on-merit (55.8%) and those who said they did not know (60.9%). Conversely, among broadcast media journalists the proportion of those who said government does not accredit on merit (38.1%) was greater; whereas among wire-service journalists the proportion of those who stood to be unknown was greater (9.0%). In summary, the findings indicate that print media journalists are on average more satisfied with the accreditation procedure than broadcast media journalists. Thirdly, in the perspective of age among young journalists the proportion of those who said that they did not know (60.9%) was greater than the proportions of those who ticked the other categories. Among mature journalists the largest proportion said accreditation status is not assigned on merit (41.8%), among senior journalists the largest proportion responded that accreditation cards are given on merit (30.0%). These findings indicate that on average senior journalists are happier with the government's procedure of accreditation than "young" and "mature" journalists. Finally, in terms of education among school/college educated journalists the greatest proportion said accreditation is given on merit (47.8%) compared with 31.3% who said accreditation is not given on merit (31.3%) and those who said that they did not know (33.8%). However, on the contrary among university educated journalists the proportion of those who mentioned that accreditation status to the journalists is not assigned on merit (68.7%) was bigger than the proportion of those who said it is assigned on merit (52.2%) and those who did not know (66.2%). These findings indicate that university educated journalists tend to be more unhappy than school/college educated journalists with the government's *modus operandi* for accrediting journalists.

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To determine the level of association between the merit of accrediting journalists and journalist type, organisation type, age and education of the news people in Sindh the researcher ran a Chi-square test for independence which indicated that there were statistically significant associations among above variables at the following levels:

- (i) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between merit of accrediting to the journalists and journalist type,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 558) = 39.17, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .26$ ), suggesting that on average news-reporting journalists believed more than newsroom journalists that accreditation is assigned on merit.
- (ii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between merit of accrediting to the journalists and organisation type,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 558) = 12.76, p = .012$ , Cramer's  $V = .10$ ), showing that on average print journalists believed more than broadcast and wire-service journalists that accreditation is assigned on merit.
- (iii) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between merit of accrediting to the journalists and age,  $\chi^2 (4, n = 556) = 33.83, p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .17$ ), suggesting that on average above 40 years old journalists believed more than mature and young journalists that accreditation is assigned on merit.
- (iv) There was a significant association (with Pearson Chi-Square) between merit of accrediting to the journalists and education,  $\chi^2 (2, n = 557) = 12.21, p = .002$ , Cramer's  $V = .14$ ), suggesting that on average school/college educated journalists believed more than university educated that accreditation is assigned on merit.

### **6.9 Factors influencing Sindh journalists in their professional duty**

Much has been debated already about the place of objectivity in journalism. Objective reporting is supposed to be cool, rather than emotional, in tone; objectivity guides journalists to separate facts from opinions and to report only facts; according to objectivity, the journalist's job is to report news without commenting on it, slanting it, or shaping it (Schudson, 2001, p. 150). The value of objectivity has become 'a cornerstone of the professional ideology of journalists' (Lichtenberg, 1991, p.216) says McNair (1998, p. 68); or it is called 'one of the core professional values of journalism' (Donsbach & Klett, 1993, p. 53). Further, according to Soffer (2009, p. 477) 'objectivity assumes that journalists can avoid bringing their personality, values, and inner world

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into their work or the reporter (I) is expected to remain distanced from the social and political phenomena and actors observed and reported on'. In this regard Schudson,(2001, p. 162), moreover, adds that 'news reports should be free from opinion or bias of any kind' (Pratte, 1995: 206). However, McNair (1998, p. 12) argued that 'There is no universal, objective journalism', which was latter also supported by the view of Josephi, (2005, p. 576) 'what has long been hailed as the professional model centring on the ideal of the objective reporter, is now increasingly seen as just that: a model; upheld but rarely attained'. Against the background of this controversy this survey attempted to assess the common factors and the magnitude of their influence which hinder Sindh journalists in their pursuit of objectivity. A six item scale, used by Ramaprasad (2001) in a Post-Independence Tanzanian study of journalists, was included in the survey questionnaire. However, one item 'management guidelines' was dropped from the original scale because it seemed to the researcher irrelevant to the culture of journalism in Sindh. The remaining five items in the scale were provided with five response-options in decreasing order from 5 = a lot to 1 = none. The data generated through the scale and the response rate rendered by the journalists regarding five common influencing factors are presented and discussed as follows:

According to table 6.31 it was observed that news-workers in Sindh mentioned 'media organization's policy' (measured by one item) as the highest influencing factor ( $Mdn = 5.00$ ) upon their journalistic work. Slightly over three fifths (60.5%) of the journalists surveyed said their 'organization's media policy' has "a lot" of influence. The influence at such level upon the journalists by organization's policy indicates that the key controllers of the journalists in Sindh are media organizations, in other words media owners, who are able to mould the entire process of news production from gathering to publishing and broadcasting through their organizational policies. Such a situation also underpins the idea that journalistic autonomy in Sindh is limited, in particular, by the policies of media organizations; as mentioned earlier, the great majority (60.5%) of the journalists reported that they were influenced 'a lot' by organizational policy. In other words, the survey indicates that journalists gather and edit news remaining within the boundaries set by organizational policies. However, that violates the spirit of ethical journalism; as McManus says (1997, p. 14) 'ethical journalism gathers information without fear or favor'.

Additionally, the second highest influencing factor which the journalists reported is 'government media laws' ( $Mdn = 4.00$ ), (measured by one item) more than

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one third (35.5%) of the respondents said that it influences them “a lot”. As far as the ‘personal values’ factor (measured by three items) is concerned, that had the lowest influence ( $Mdn = 2.66$ ) upon the journalistic work as only 16.9% journalists responded that it influences them “a lot”. The above findings regarding influencing factors coincide exactly with the findings of Post-Independence Tanzanian study of journalists in which Ramaprasad (2001) found that like ‘Journalists in the USA (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996), journalists in Tanzania too considered personal values (measured by three items) as having the smallest influence in their reporting ..... Respondents rated organization policy (measured by two items) as the highest influence on their reporting, government position (measured by one item) as second.’

**Table 6.31 Composition of the Journalists by influencing factors**

<i>Influencing factors</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>S<sup>2</sup></i>	(%) saying influencing “ A lot ”
<b>1.Media organisation’s policy</b>	506	<b>5.00</b>	<b>1.194</b>	<b>(60.5)</b>
<b>2.Government media laws</b>	453	<b>4.00</b>	<b>1.859</b>	<b>(35.5)</b>
<b>3.Personal values</b>		<b>2.66</b>	<b>2.039</b>	<b>(16.9)</b>
Personal values and opinions	471	4.00	1.949	(28.5)
Political orientation	448	2.00	1.971	(10.0)
Ethnic affiliation	425	2.00	2.197	(12.2)

*Note:* Higher median scores equal greater influence. Scale ranges from 5 = ‘A lot’ to 1 = ‘None’.

Moreover, under the factor ‘personal values’ out of three the highest influencing item was ‘personal values and opinions’ ( $Mdn = 4.00$ ) which influences more than a quarter (28.5%) of the journalists “a lot”. And the lowest influencing item under the ‘personal values’ factor was ‘political orientation’ ( $Mdn = 2.00$ ,  $S^2 = 1.97$ ) regarding which just the proportion of one tenth (10.0%) journalists mentioned that it influences them ‘a lot’ in their journalistic work. In summary, the factor which the journalists considered most influential ( $Mdn = 5.00$ ) is the ‘policy of media organisation’ which is followed by ‘government media laws’ ( $Mdn = 4.00$ ) and ‘personal values’ ( $Mdn = 2.66$ ). In the table’s breakdown of “personal values”, the item ‘political orientation’ (10.0%) is at the bottom, underneath ‘ethnic affiliation’ (12.2%). In other words it seems that the grip of media organisations or owners is tighter upon journalists than government media laws. This finding supports the notion of McManus (1997, p. 5) that the autonomy of journalists is bounded by ‘three universal commands’ and one of them is the owners’

interest. Additionally, it is also evident that, to an extent, all five items influence the journalists in Sindh while they report, write and edit the news content, thereby underpinning the idea of Reese and Daniel (1997, p. 424) that ‘journalists have found it increasingly hard to maintain that they are wholly “objective”.’ Moreover, to assess the impact of journalist type, ownership type, education level and geographic affiliation upon the influencing factors in journalistic work a Mann-Whitney *U* test was run which largely resulted no statistically significant differences except the following:

Firstly, in the context of journalist type (See table 6.32) it was found that newsroom journalists ( $M = 4.53$ ) compared with news-reporting journalists ( $M = 4.08$ ) are more influenced by ‘media organisation’s policy’ ( $U = 24280.500$ ,  $z = -2.972$ ,  $p = .003$ ). Similarly, by the ‘government media laws’ newsroom journalists ( $M = 3.95$ ) compared with news-reporting journalists ( $M = 3.50$ ) are influenced more ( $U = 20562.000$ ,  $z = -2.200$ ,  $p = .028$ ). However, in contrast under the factor ‘personal values’ the influence of the item ‘personal values and opinions’ was higher upon news-reporting journalists ( $M = 3.54$ ) compared with newsroom ( $M = 3.03$ ) journalists ( $U = 20404.500$ ,  $z = -3.442$ ,  $p = .001$ ). In a similar vein the item ‘political orientation’ was also influencing more to news-reporting journalists ( $M = 2.46$ ) compared with newsroom ( $M = 2.06$ ); ( $U = 19562.500$ ,  $z = -2.576$ ,  $p = .010$ ).

**Table 6.32 Distribution of the respondents by Journalist Type and Influencing Factors**

<i>Influencing factors</i>	<b>Journalist type</b>				
	<b>Newsroom</b>	<b>Newsreporting</b>			
	Mean	Mean	<i>Mann-Whitney U</i>	<i>Z</i>	<i>P Value</i>
<b>Media organisation’s policy</b>	4.53	4.08	24280.500	-2.972	*.003
<b>Government media laws</b>	3.95	3.50	20562.000	-2.200	*.028
<b>Personal values</b>					
Personal values and opinions	3.03	3.54	20404.500	-3.442	*.001
Political orientation	2.06	2.46	19562.500	-2.576	*.010
Ethnic affiliation	2.17	2.39	19015.000	-1.508	.131

Note: Higher mean scores equal greater influence. Scale ranges from 5 = ‘A lot’ to 1 = ‘None’.

\*. The mean differences are significant at the  $< .05$  level.

Secondly, in the regard to the nature of media ownership the state-run media journalists ( $M = 4.63$ ) compared with private media journalists ( $M = 3.59$ ) were influenced more by the ‘government media laws’ ( $U = 3295.000$ ,  $z = -4.354$ ,  $p = .000$ ); whereas, conversely, private media journalists ( $M = 3.42$ ) compared with state-run media journalists ( $M = 2.75$ ) were influenced more by ‘personal values and opinions’ an item the under factor ‘personal values’ ( $U = 3966.500$ ,  $z = -2.215$ ,  $p = .027$ ). Thirdly, in



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the perspective of education level no statistically significant differences were found among the journalists in all the influencing three factors and five items. Fourthly, in the context of geographic affiliation (See table 6.33) the influences of ‘media organisation’s policy’ and ‘government media laws’ compared with rural journalists ( $M = 4.01$  and  $M = 3.44$  respectively) were higher upon urban journalists ( $M = 4.49$  and  $M = 3.92$  respectively), ( $U = 26786.500$ ,  $z = -3.389$ ,  $p = .001$  and  $U = 21998.000$ ,  $z = -2.683$ ,  $p = .007$  respectively). However, in contrast it was found that rural journalists ( $M = 3.52$ ,  $M = 2.51$  and  $M = 2.47$  respectively) compared with urban ( $M = 3.17$ ,  $M = 2.09$  and  $M = 2.13$  respectively) were more influenced by three items ‘personal values and opinions’ ( $U = 23436.000$ ,  $z = -2.871$ ,  $p = .004$ ), ‘political orientation’ ( $U = 20825.000$ ,  $z = -3.130$ ,  $p = .002$ ) and ‘ethnic affiliation’ ( $U = 19871.000$ ,  $z = -2.187$ ,  $p = .029$ ) under the factor ‘personal values’.

And to assess the impact of organisation type, job seniority, media language, monthly income and age upon the factors which influence the journalists in Sindh a Kurskal-Wallis Test was run which largely resulted in no statistically significant differences in the influencing factors subject to above variables except the following, firstly, from the perspective of organisation type (See table 6.34) the influence of ‘media organisation’s policy’ upon wire-service journalists ( $M = 277.76$ ) compared with broadcast ( $M = 275.25$ ) and print journalists ( $M = 239.30$ ) was higher  $\chi^2$  (2,  $n = 506$ ) = 9.69,  $p = .008$ ).

**Table 6.33 Distribution of the Journalists by Geographic Affiliation and Influencing Factors**

Influencing factors	Geographic affiliation				
	Rural	Urban			
	journalists	journalists			
	Mean	Mean	Mann-Whitney U	Z	P Value
Media organisation’s policy	4.01	4.49	26786.500	-3.389	*.001
Government media laws	3.44	3.92	21998.000	-2.683	*.007
Personal values					
Personal values and opinions	3.52	3.17	23436.000	-2.871	*.004
Political orientation	2.51	2.09	20825.000	-3.130	*.002
Ethnic affiliation	2.47	2.13	19871.000	-2.187	*.029

Note: Higher mean scores equal greater influence. Scale ranges from 5 = ‘A lot’ to 1 = ‘None’.  
\*. The mean differences are significant at the  $< .05$  level.

Similarly, the factor of ‘government media laws’ as well had more influence upon wire-service journalists ( $M = 294.50$ ) compared with print ( $M = 205.36$ ) and broadcast journalists ( $M = 254.67$ ),  $\chi^2$  (2,  $n = 453$ ) = 23.20,  $p = .000$ ). However, conversely, it was observed that under the factor ‘personal values’ print journalists ( $M =$

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248.46 and  $M = 241.46$  respectively) compared with broadcast ( $M = 220.16$  and  $M = 190.97$  respectively) and wire-service journalists ( $M = 192.52$  and  $M = 232.38$  respectively) were influenced more by the items ‘personal values and opinions’  $\chi^2(2, n = 471) = 7.61, p = .022$  and ‘political orientation’  $\chi^2(2, n = 448) = 16.04, p = .000$ . Secondly, in the regard of job seniority there were no significant differences among journalists regarding the influence of all three factors in their journalistic work. Thirdly, in the perspective of media language it was found that the Urdu-language media journalists ( $M = 246.42$ ) compared with Sindhi-language ( $M = 237.87$ ) and English-language media journalists ( $M = 259.64$ ) were influenced higher by the item ‘personal values and opinions’  $\chi^2(2, n = 470) = 5.888, p = .053$ . Fourthly, in the perspective of monthly income under-paid journalists ( $M = 251.86$ ) compared with un-paid ( $M = 239.64$ ), better-paid ( $M = 158.57$ ), lucratively-paid ( $M = 211.29$ ) and those who did not answer ( $M = 248.27$ ) were influenced more by the item ‘personal values and opinions’  $\chi^2(4, n = 471) = 22.677, p = .000$ . In contrast, however, un-paid journalists ( $M = 252.44$  and  $M = 252.95$  respectively) compared with under-paid ( $M = 226.47$  and  $M = 219.44$  respectively), better-paid ( $M = 169.20$  and  $M = 180.58$  respectively), lucratively-paid ( $M = 211.92$  and  $M = 140.68$  respectively) and those who did not answer ( $M = 227.50$  and  $M = 177.50$  respectively) were influenced more by the items ‘political orientation’  $\chi^2(4, n = 448) = 14.860, p = .005$ ; and ‘ethnic affiliation’  $\chi^2(4, n = 425) = 29.617, p = .000$ . Finally, in the terms of age there were not any statistically significant differences among journalists about the factors which influenced them in journalistic work.

**Table 6.34 Distribution of the Journalists by Organisation type and Influencing Factors**

<i>Influencing factors</i>	<b>Organisation type</b>			Chi-Square	<i>p</i> Value
		<b>Print media</b>	<b>Broadcast media</b>	<b>Wire-service</b>	
	N	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank	
<b>Media organisation’s policy</b>	506	239.30	275.25	277.76	9.69
<b>Government media laws</b>	453	205.36	254.67	294.50	23.20
<b>Personal values</b>					
Personal values and opinions	471	248.46	220.16	192.52	7.61
Political orientation	448	241.46	190.97	232.38	16.04
Ethnic affiliation	425	220.19	203.99	188.68	2.92

Note: Higher mean scores equal greater influence. Scale ranges from 5 = ‘A lot’ to 1 = ‘None’. \*, The mean differences are significant at the  $< .05$  level.  $df = 2$ .

### **6.10 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter discussed levels of job satisfaction, security, professional commitment and job importance, and found that the majority of the Sindh journalists seemed content with their jobs and considered journalism an important profession, despite the fact that nearly half of the surveyed journalists showed that they worked under insecure job conditions. However, they were determined to continue in journalism even if other better jobs were made available to them.

The other elements discussed were the computer literacy, computer use, pre-job and on-the-job training and their perceptions regarding the role of the media. More than half of the surveyed Sindh journalists had formal computer training and more than three fifths (62.3%) said that they use a computer in their professional work. Less than half (46.9%) said they had pre-job journalistic training; of these almost half received pre-job training for a month or less. Though a good majority (71.0%) said that they had received on-the-job training, and over two fifths (42.7%) had received it for more than three times, yet almost all of the respondents (95.1%) said that they need more training, in particular in news reporting, and media laws and ethics. As regards their views concerning the role of the media, the survey found that respondents believe that media should play first ‘information analysis and public advocacy’ role with the characteristics of accuracy, objectivity and timeliness of news; then analyzing complex issues, investigating government claims, and giving ordinary people a chance to express their views. The second role of the media, according to the surveyed Sindh journalists, should be ‘dissemination of political awareness’. In other words media should educate the public about politicians’ viewpoints and how government operates. The third role of the media, in the view of the respondents, should be ‘national development’, which means that the media should portray a positive image of the national leaders and country, support government development programs, and also propagate government policy.

In addition the other significant issues presented in the chapter are political inclination, activism, and ideologies held by the surveyed Sindh journalists and their attitude toward their personal vote casting. Press club membership, news information sharing, journalists’ perception of the press clubs, media consumption priority and attitude, and perceptions regarding the credibility of various language media were also discussed. Thus it was observed that the majority of the Sindh journalists (64.4%) reported that they did not have direct affiliation with any political party. However, of

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those who were politically affiliated (203=100%) just 30.0% were members of some political parties, whereas the majority (69.7%) said that they were supporters (50.7%) and were affiliated in other ways (19.2%). 94.9% were not only registered to vote but also 90.4% said they had cast their votes in elections; 82.7% cast votes during the last 2008 election in Pakistan. And ideologically they were found first liberal (59.8%) then moderate (34.2%).

The majority of the Sindh journalists (71.1%) were found to be press club members. And they considered the press clubs as newsgathering organisations (31.8%) and social clubs (23.3%). However, the highest proportion of them (44.9%) said that the press clubs serve both purposes: as social clubs and newsgathering organisations as well. The majority (88.4%) said they also share gathered news information with their colleagues at press clubs, however 32.8% of them do this only occasionally. Further regarding press clubs the highest proportion (45.5%) of the surveyed Sindh journalists also said that if any journalist infringes the press club constitution his membership may be rejected or suspended under disciplinary action. For personal intellectual development and getting up-to-date the most consumed medium by the Sindh journalists is, first, newspaper (67.0%) and then television (64.5%). However, the medium they consume least is first, radio (10.2%) and then magazine (13.5%). In their perception in Pakistan print media is more credible (61.0%) than electronic (39.0%). Similarly, the highest proportion (42.9%) believed that English media have more credibility than Sindhi and Urdu language media. In Pakistan in general they said that the most consumed news medium is newspaper (52.2%) and then television (39.7%).

Finally, the chapter also presents the opinions of Sindh journalists about general media freedom, professional autonomy and the factors which influence journalists while performing their professional responsibilities. So in general the majority of the surveyed Sindh journalists viewed that there is no media freedom, as just 8.4% said there is 'complete freedom'. In the context of professional autonomy 29.2% said that they had complete freedom in selection of news stories, and similarly the proportion of one third (34.0%) said they had 'complete freedom' in emphasizing the various aspects of news story. Regarding being accredited by government almost half of the surveyed (47.8%) Sindh journalists said that they had no accreditation by the government, whereas about the criterion of that accreditation almost half viewed that it is not assigned on merit. Finally, in terms of the factors which influence Sindh journalists in performing their professional duty: 'media organisation's policy' was held to be the first most influential

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factor by the majority (60.5%) of respondents; then ‘government media laws’ were second most influential (35.5%); whereas the least influential factor was ‘personal values’ which influences ‘a lot’ to just 16.9% of the surveyed journalists.

## **7 FINDINGS OF THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS**

### **7.1 Introduction**

Qualitative data was collected through six focus group interviews, which were conducted in six different district headquarter cities of Sindh. Those six district headquarter cities (basic sampling units) to conduct focus groups were purposively sampled. For data collection an instrument composed of six questions/topics was constructed and used. The arrangement of the focus group sessions and selection of the participants were made with the cooperation of the office-bearers and senior journalists of the concerned district press clubs. The distribution of the participants for all focus groups stood as follows six (6) participants in each for two focus groups, five (5) participants in each for other two focus groups and four (4) participants in each for another two focus group discussions, which added together thirty (30) participants averagely five for each group discussion. Averagely all the thirty participants were into the age bracket of 25 to 40 years old, and belonged to different media organisations – newspaper, television and news agency.

Out of six the three focus group discussions were conducted at evening, two at noon, and one at night. Finally about the venues of the focus group discussions as out of a total of six three were arranged and recorded at the press clubs of the concerned districts and three at the district bureau offices of some media outlets. As a result, the instrument not only generated data on the primary topics but also some naturally developed additional sub-topics came under discussions by the participants. The technique adopted to analyse focus groups data was as first the recordings were transcribed word by word, then keys summaries were taken out from the full transcriptions which were thematically analyzed.

Based on the findings of these focus groups, this chapter discusses the attitude of the state towards news media, as well as the attitude of state and media organisations/owners towards journalists. In the context of the attitude of the state towards the media, the tools which the state uses to control the news media are examined. Moreover, taking into consideration the Pakistani political system this chapter examines the prevailing security conditions and threats to Sindh journalists. Further, like the western media, the news media in Pakistan has changed and is changing as an industry; therefore, in this context, the role of media organisations and journalistic forums in the career development of the journalists is discussed. Finally, the

chapter discusses and explains the arguments of focus group participants regarding the reasons for factionalism among journalists is found very obvious among Sindh journalists and causes harm to the unity and welfare of the journalists as pointed earlier in the methodology chapter.

### **7.2 Attitude of the state towards news media**

The first section of the focus group agenda contained a one question/topic which stimulated the participants to express their views about the '*general attitude of the state towards news media in Pakistan*'. The aim of this topic was to know and assess the views and opinions of the participants about the attitude of the state towards the news media during different political systems in Pakistan, and the data generated on this agenda item is classified and analysed under the headings that follow:

#### **Correlation between the state's attitude and the political system**

To begin with, it is very common to say that, in terms of its political history, Pakistan has a chequered past. More than half of the time since independence it has been ruled by military governments for varying lengths of time, which have been succeeded by democratic political systems, which were then succeeded by other military dictatorships; and even the democratic governments have not been absolutely democratic.

#### **The true colour of Pakistani democracy in the opinions of Sindh journalists**

However, while complimenting the democratic political system in Pakistan one participant mentioned its true colour that '*over here it is a feudal democracy it is not even a capitalist democracy*' (Karachi focus group). In a similar vein one other participant in another district while defining the current political situation expressed the opinion that '*actually the state has created so many states within the state and they have been handed over to feudal lords and bureaucrats*' (Thatta focus group). So this is how the two focus group participants in Sindh caricatured the democratic political system in which they have been working. The attitude of the state towards the news media has varied according to the style of government - i.e. dictatorship and democracy. As according to one participant '*there has been a difference in the attitude of the army and the democratic governments*' (Karachi focus group).

### **7.2.1 Attitude during military rule**

Defining the attitude of the military towards the media, three participants independently said that *‘during the Zia era there were many restrictions upon media’* (Hyderabad focus group), whereas the second participant referring to all military governments in Pakistan expressed *‘during the army rules the media have remained completely under control’* (Karachi focus group), and lastly the third participant expressed his view that *‘during martial law there had been an extreme type of censorship’* (Karachi focus group). Therefore, on the basis of the opinions expressed by these three participants, the news flow and activities of journalists remained under the very close observation of the state during those undemocratic political times. And in regard to the level of censorship during army rule one participant at the metropolitan city focus group said that *‘even newspapers used to be checked before publishing’* (Karachi focus group).

### **7.2.2 Attitude during democratic rules**

On the contrary, however, in describing the attitude of the state under democratic governments, two participants from the Hyderabad focus group registered the following opinions: one said that *‘during democracy the media have been free’* whereas the second participant, drawing a contrast between the preceding military rule and the present democratic government said, *‘compared to Zia era media are free now’*. However in a similar context two other participants from Karachi focus group contributing their opinion, however, with a little variance that *‘during democratic eras it is better to some extent’* or *‘in democratic rule to some extent the media are free’*. The notable distinction in the opinions of these participants is that while attaching the adjectives of *‘better’* and *‘free’* to the attitude of state towards news media during democratic political systems they have also qualified this with the phrase *‘to some extent’* to indicate more precisely the different attitudes held toward the news media by the military and democratic governments.

### **Level of freedom under democratic governments**

Moreover, regarding media freedom during the incumbent democratic government one Karachi focus group participant mentioned that *‘we can’t say that media is absolutely free’*. Two other relevant and similar views were received from participants at the focus groups of rural Sindh as one opined that *‘though compared to martial law governments the media have remained freer during democratic governments, but it does not mean that they have granted freedom to the media’* (Larkana focus group), whereas the other



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participant in the context of the incumbent demographic government shared his view that *'whatever is happening in the country cannot be reported freely'* (Sukkur focus group).

In conclusion, the findings of these participants suggest that the attitude of state towards the news media in Pakistan is directly proportional to the type of political system. To describe the attitude of the state during the period of military rule participants used phrases like *'restrictions upon media'*, *'extreme type of censorship'* and *'completely under control'*, while during the democratic rules the participants felt the news media were *'free'* and the attitude of state *'better'*, however, though *'to some extent'*. It may be implied that Pakistani news media and journalists have not yet seen absolute media freedom.

### **Development of electronic media and freedom**

The focus groups participants were of the view that the present media freedom in Pakistan has been brought by the development of electronic media in private ownership in Pakistan. Two urban participants belonging to two different district focus groups said, regarding the prevailing media freedom in Pakistan, that *'since electronic media grew (in Pakistan), the media have got such a freedom that news channels can now broadcast live coverage'* (Hyderabad focus group). And the other participant referring to the attitude of state before the development of broadcast media in private ownership added that *'in the past the role of government had been very dangerous, many times curbs were imposed, but now after the arrival of channels, media are freer'* (Karachi focus group). In this way the participants were of the opinion that the development of broadcast media under private ownership in Pakistan, which began almost ten years ago, has propelled the evolution of media freedom.

### **Media freedom: granted under compulsion**

In Pakistan broadcast media under private ownership has developed in recent past - a decade ago. In addition the incumbent political system is democratic, therefore, compared with past media are felt freer now. However, the focus groups participants were of the view that the incumbent freedom to media has been given in compulsion rather than with full consent or happily. The evolution of *'media freedom granted under compulsion'* was further explained by five participants from three different district focus groups. These participants gave two main reasons which forced the state to lift restraints on the news media. As one participant said, *'the development of media has*

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*compelled the state to change its attitude. Because the state knows that if they adopted the attitude of victimisation against the media then pressure will develop against it at international level. So the development of pressure at international level has prevented the state'* (Hyderabad focus group). The second participant also gave an identical statement, however with different words, by saying that *'if the transmission of channels is banned through cable system, next day the whole world will turn against it and the ban will be lifted'* (Karachi focus group). Still one another participant from Sukkur focus group gave a similar reason in his opinion that *'they (state) do not want much advanced media, however, now the world has turned a global village, therefore, if there is any strictness against the media then it becomes an international issue. Otherwise they do not like that the media should have freedom to expose the failures of government. So with compulsion they give some relief to the media'*. These three participants tell us that media has gotten *'some relief'* due to pressure on the state at an international level, pressure emanating from the public of other countries, which is the result of exposure to global media. In addition, two other participants identify other forces which, according to them, compel the state to give freedom to the news media. As one participant shared that *'whatever freedom our journalistic circle feels it is not freedom. This is the policy of the government to let the media groom'*, (Karachi focus group).

Although this participant himself did not give any explanation for why the government or state would like to let the media grow, one possible explanation may be that before the current large-scale development of broadcast media in Pakistan, the public of Pakistan was dependent on India for its film and TV media through the dish culture. This phenomenon in and of itself posed a cultural threat to Pakistan on the one hand; and on the other it became apparent that India's dominance in broadcast media gave it the advantage in presenting its case at an international level on a wide variety of issues. This is the opinion of one participant as a reason why the state was forced to let the broadcast media develop, in the following words that *'to counter the foreign channels the government was compelled to set up local channels and it was the plan of the government to counter the foreign media. As result along with entertainment so many news channels were also setup, which took a step to their freedom as well'* (Hyderabad focus group).

### **7.2.3 Overall attitude of the state towards news media**

Even in spite of this liberalising trend in the attitude of the state toward the media, participants agreed that it was there has always existed friction between news media and state. According to one participant *‘actually state never likes anything said against it in the media. In this context state and media are always supposed to be anti each other’* (Khairpur focus group). Some other participants belonging to various district focus groups, using the exactly similar phrase *‘since beginning’* in their opinion, also added that the *‘media have remained in a critical situation and government has kept all laws under its control’* (Khairpur focus group), the second one added that *‘the media organisations have remained under their (state) pressure’* (Khairpur focus group), and lastly the third one said that *‘the attitude of state towards media has never been fair’* (Sukkur focus group).

Moreover, the overall attitude of state towards news media was further explained by three participants in the following words. One said *‘either it is dictatorship or democracy the attitude of both has been aggressive and dangerous towards news media’* (Thatta focus group). And the remaining two participants also shared very similar views as one was of the opinion that *‘during every era, either democratic or dictatorship, it has been tried to suppress the media’* (Larkana focus group) and the other expressed that *‘either democratic or martial law set-up whenever media have impacted negatively the interests of governments they impose a ban’* (Larkana focus group). In this way the overall attitude of the state towards the news media can be further boiled down in the following words of two participants that *‘state has never accepted that media are the fourth pillar of the state and it should be honoured’* (Larkana focus group) or *‘state has never accepted the freedom of the media’* (Larkana focus group).

### **What is that state wants and expects from news media?**

Regarding the state’s attitude the participants were of the view that state has some expectations from the media to fulfil. In this way some participants shared their opinions that elicit more clearly what the state wants and expects from the news media. As one of them, speaking in an urban focus group, said that *‘overall, the attitude of the state has been, that media should function on its (states’) beck and call’* (Hyderabad focus group). Whereas, the other, also from an urban group, expressed his feelings in following words that the *‘state somehow wants control’* (Karachi focus group). In a

similar vein in the views of three rural focus group participants it was revealed that the *'state has tried to keep the media under control'* (Larkana focus group). Or *'state administrators want to have dominance over the media'* (Larkana focus group). Finally, one other participant from a rural focus group mentioned that *'state likes that media which praise it (state) and dislikes that media which exposes it'* (Thatta focus group). In conclusion, the consensus of most Sindh journalists is that the state somehow wants to have *'control'* over the news media with the purpose to use it, for the most part, in favourable propaganda in the interest of national policies irrespective of political system, whether military rule or democracy. And this is what one participant exactly stated that *'Always state administrators want that the media should work in their favour, propagate for them'* (Hyderabad focus group).

### **Relationship between media owners and state and the subsequent media organisations' policy**

The relationship between news media owners and state was one of the sub-topics which was generated naturally by the urban focus group participants, i.e. Karachi and Hyderabad, in the discussion. In this regard one participant speaking the mind of news media owners regarding their relationship with state or government stated that *'owners say that they are not to strain their relations with government'* (Karachi focus group). In this way one of the reasons *'not to strain their relations with government'* was enumerated by another participant that *'media organisations have also some interests which are protected by the governments'* (Hyderabad focus group). Speaking about the media organisations' interests, the participant added by way of example that *'as wage board (for journalists in Pakistan) is not being implemented and governments are silent, because, governments have interests in media organisations'* (Hyderabad focus group). And regarding, the way the media organisations serve the interests of government, one participant, justifying the existence of such a practice, elaborated that *'in this time if any reporter brings news or makes a documentary that is against the government, persons is dumped, but that same stuff will run at that time when government will talk for implementation of seventh wage award'* (Karachi focus group). And finally the participant called such an attitude of news media organisations as *'that is give and take policy between media owners, not media workers, media owners and state'* (Karachi focus group). In this way the nature of the relationship between news media owners

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and the state was further boiled down by another participant in the following words that *'both fight for each others' interest'* (Karachi focus group).

Moreover, the participants implied that the policies of media organisations are changed in accordance with the nature of the relationship between media owners and state. One participant stated in this regard that *'if they (media owners) are friends with incumbent government then they would have policy of adjustment with them'* (Karachi focus group). Or the participant repeated a similar view in his second thought but in a same breath, but in a slightly different form, regarding news media in Sindh that the *'media have various aspects: free media, slave media and partner media; I mean there is also a media partner with politicians or government'* (Karachi focus group). So it seems that overall the above discussion about the nature of relationship between news media owners and state reveals that both parties, media owners and state, seem disinterested about the development, rights and interests of news people in Sindh although without these newspeople media could not exist in the first place. Unfortunately, in the current situation the newspeople are financially exploited. Rather it seems that both media owners and state are in collusion with each other having agreed on the policy of *'scratch my back and I will scratch yours'*, and therefore, have successfully been serving the interests of each other. The media owners benefit commercially and propagandise in favour of or paper over the dark side of government. However, the policies of those media owners who become unfriendly with the governments of the times, due to some reasons, work in reverse. But again the very significant point to be made here is that those who suffer most in either situation are the news people of Sindh. Therefore, they give the impression of being disgruntled in their spoken opinions. In addition, it seems that to develop a balance or a reconciliatory approach between media owners and the state the leverages which have been used by both are *'media regulations'* on the part of state versus *'media agenda setting'* from the side of media owners. As one participant, while highlighting upon the severity of grip of the media owners on the news content to be published and broadcast or not, told that *'what owners wish is published and broadcast, and what they do not wish is not published and broadcast'* (Karachi focus group). The other point regarding news media one participant shared that *'media itself is also categorized in classes, some media organisations are rich, and some at middle and some are lower. So, in particular, the lower media are absolutely slaves to local feudalists, local governments and provincial governments'*. The participant further pointed out that *'the conditions of Sindhi*

*language newspapers are such that if an advertisement is not received from the Government Information Department or the advertisement cheques from the Information Department are not received on time then the salary to staff is not paid'* (Karachi focus group). In this way the financial positions of media organisations are also self-explanatory and answer the question, 'why media owners become inclined to develop the policy of quid pro quo with state or governments of the time?'. Finally the scenario drawn in the above discussion about the relationship between news media owners and state or governments of the time implies that both parties to a certain extent are in unison with each other, though with some exceptions.

In addition to news media owners and the state, the other significant dimension of this profession is journalists who have to deal and interact with both media owners and state due to the nature of their profession. Therefore, naturally the attitude of state and news media organisations towards journalists also came under focus group discussions as follows:

### **7.2.4 Attitude of the state and media organisations/ owners towards journalists**

#### **1: Attitude by state**

About the attitude of state towards journalists various participants came up with similar opinions, although they expressed them slightly differently. Overall the participants were not satisfied with the attitude of the state and media owners toward journalists. According to them the state of Pakistan and media owners or organisations do nothing for the welfare and development of journalist community. As one participant referring to the various governments of the time described his feelings in the following way that '*governments have done nothing for journalists..... The issues of journalists are not being paid attention to*' (Khairpur focus group). However, the other participant from the same focus group observed the attitude of the state towards journalists a bit differently: '*they (governments or state) have never thought positively that journalists should be facilitated and made absolutely free so they can report fearlessly*' (Khairpur focus group). As this participant implies, fear is a fact of life for journalists. Such a feeling has also been supported by a participant belonging to another district focus group that '*they (journalists) are under pressure from both the state and feudal lords*' (Larkana focus group). In this way the opinions of these participants showing the level of satisfaction with the attitude of state towards journalists have also mentioned another party (feudalism) to be responsible and involved in the maintenance of such an attitude

which, further, was more clearly stated in the following words of another participant who said *'the attitude of government is bad and there is involvement of feudal lords and tribal chiefs'* (Sukkur focus group).

The above opinion of the participant implies that the state also comes to contain the news people through feudal lords as well. However, on the part of journalists they want to practice their profession by following the professional values as it was expressed by one participant, that *'journalists always try to report accurately and honestly, however, on publishing and broadcasting such news not only journalists even their families are intimidated and threatened. So the attitude of state towards journalists is not fair'* the participant concluded (Khairpur focus group).

### **Tools of state to control the news people**

Regarding ways to control journalists by the state the participants referred to many forms which are applied as tools to control the news people in Sindh, which include even threatening to the journalists. As one urban focus group participant commented *'there are two sides one directly threatening and other by owners'* (Karachi focus group). In the context of directly threatening the participants came up with various examples, first *'threats by intelligence and police'* (Hyderabad focus group); second, five participants from different district focus groups said *'implicate the journalists in bogus cases'*; third *'they hire goons to get the journalists attacked physically'* (Larkana focus group); fourth, two participants told that while baton-charging the public protesting rallies police also *'targets, arrests, beats'* journalists.

Moreover, in regard to restraining the journalists through owners, two rural focus group participants mentioned that by the state *'media owners are forced to fire the journalists'* (Larkana focus group) or the state seeks to *'influence and approach the media organisations to fire those journalists who do not follow the government policy'* (Larkana focus group). In this way in addition to the above referred *'directly threatening and other by owners'* two participants pointed out some other tools used to control the news people. According to the participant, first, *'one of the tools is some good journalists are offered lucrative government jobs'* (Larkana focus group) and second, it was stated by the other participant from another focus group that *'there is dominance of feudal lords, so they are given a task to control journalists either influencing them on community basis or family basis'* (Thatta focus group).

### **2: Attitude by media organisations/owners**

Along with the attitude of state towards journalists the participants also expressed their opinions regarding the attitude of media organisations and owners towards news people. And it was found, as follows, similar to the attitude of state the participants were not happy and satisfied with the attitude of media organisations/owners towards journalists in Sindh. Rather according to the views of the participants the attitude of media organisations/owners seemed very unfair. As one participant stated that *‘if the advertisements are blocked, the price of paper is raised media organisations protest; however, they do not do anything for journalists’* (Sukkur focus group). Two other participants also painted the media organisations negatively: *‘here media organisations are unrewarding and exploitative camps with the exception of a few’* (Thatta focus group) or *‘here with the exception of a few media organisations, all others exploit the journalists in Interior Sindh’* (Larkana focus group). And in the words of a member of the Karachi focus group, journalists are *‘bonded labour which is exploited by media organisations’* (Karachi focus group).

Further, the focus group discussions explained the various ways journalists are exploited by media organisations and owners. First, journalists are made scapegoats by the media organisations in order to escape from the anger of the government. Two participants were quoted in this regard. According to one participant *‘politicians sitting on treasury benches ask the media organisations that the journalist who has reported against them be fired’* (Khairpur focus group), or the second one stated almost in a similar way that *‘it happens that if any reporter brings an important news that goes against any minister, as result other day the reporter is fired from the job, that why did he publish such news?’* (Karachi focus group). If the other party is a feudal lord instead of government the same thing happens. As one participant noted *‘sometimes it happens that if a journalist having taken a risk digs out an important story or catches snaps, same feudal lords who have relations in media organisations just make one phone call and that news is not published’* (Larkana focus group). In any conflict with powerful state or non-state media organisations owners try to protect themselves, and the journalists are caught in the middle. The second way that journalists are exploited by media organisations and owners is that journalists in addition to reporting, are made to sell advertisements. As one participant said *‘just the media organisations demand for advertisements, those who collect more advertisements are supposed to be more efficient journalists than those who dig more news stories and collect less*



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*advertisements*' (Khairpur focus group). Another participant agreed: *'they (media owners) remember well the national days and politically celebrated days. So they remember well how to get the journalists to beg? They tell us, this is your training how to beg advertisement, how to ask for money'* (Khairpur focus group). This participant also mentioned that the journalists are called to the head offices of their media organisations particularly for training in selling advertising rather than training them in the professional skills of journalism. Moreover, the participant refers to advertisement collection as begging, because the participant seems to realise that as a reporter it is against journalistic professionalism; however, journalists are compelled to do it due to lack of job security or to get some percentage of amount as a commission from the rate of that advertisement. Moreover, the participant told a harrowing narrative of a colleague who was fired in an extremely disgraceful way because of advertisement collection. The participant stated that *'a week back I watched a slide on one Sindhi language TV channel showing frequently the announcement of one journalist being fired by that channel'*. Regarding the reason for firing that journalist from his job the participant further stated *'the director told me, because in a year that journalist had just collected the advertisements of ....thousand rupees and compared to him the other journalist has collected the advertisements of ....lacs rupees'* ( one lac equals to one hundred thousands). Moreover, in a personal conversation, one journalist explained the current situation of journalists in the following way that *'media organisations give us a task to earn advertisements so when we report some news against those persons or departments who give us the business of advertisements they say to us that they are giving us advertisements and we are reporting news against them'*. In summary, this practice of using journalists to sell advertisements makes it very difficult for them to report the truth objectively.

Thirdly one participant who is a member of the broadcast media said that *'unfortunately, particularly in electronic media, the professional attitude has not yet developed'* (Larkana focus group). And that *'unprofessional attitude'* on the part of the electronic media was interpreted by three participants belonging to two different district focus groups in the following way: *'even journalists have to buy video cameras from their own pockets'* (District Thatta focus group). Surprisingly a participant from another district said that *'even video-cameras are not provided by media organisations and journalists purchase their own'* (Larkana focus group). The participant added that *'as a result, yellow journalism is getting existence'* (Larkana focus group). The other

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participant, speaking about both print and electronic media organisations, said that *'media organisations do not provide journalists even still cameras, video cameras, recorders, faxes, or expenses to setup and maintain offices'* (Larkana focus group). Finally, one participant said of the print media that *'it is great misfortune of media that many newspapers do not follow the wage board'* (Hyderabad focus group). (Wage board is a committee to be formed by the government in Pakistan to fix the rates of wages for journalists).

However, things like *'unprofessional attitude'* on the part of electronic media organisations and *'not following the wage board'* by newspapers proved just the tip of the iceberg when the participants straightforwardly stated that the journalists are underpaid, unpaid and appointed in a way that is unrecognisable and unchallengeable in the court of law if needed so. First, as three participants said about the financial position of the journalists in Sindh *'journalists work on low wages, so if they go on strike their news would not be published in any paper, or broadcast on any TV channel'* (Hyderabad focus group). We can see here not only the financial condition of the journalists but also cooperation of media owners with each other: an item in favour of journalists and against media owners would not be publicised, either in print or broadcast media. The other two participants had this to say about the underpayment of journalists: *'media organisations do not pay a salary to their journalists according to their necessities'* (Sukkur focus group) and *'media organisations prefer new entrants because they are willing to work on a low salary'* (Karachi focus group). Finally, the point here is that journalists being underpaid is relevant to those journalists who work in urban or media cities of Sindh i.e. Karachi and Hyderabad.

As far as the journalists working in the rural part of Sindh are concerned their financial narrative is filled with the worst, most horrifying and mindboggling adjectives. According to four participants rural journalists are unpaid. First *'in the interior of Sindh journalists are not paid any salary, all work free of charge'* (Hyderabad focus group); second *'media organisations do not even pay salary to local journalists'* (Khairpur focus group); third, *'at local level journalists do not draw any salary'* (Sukkur focus group); and fourth *'at local level, media organisations do not pay any salary'* (Sukkur focus group).

Two participants gave a slightly different version of the financial condition of rural journalists. *'90% of journalists are working voluntarily for newspapers and TV channels, they are not offered any salary'* (Thatta focus group). According to one other

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participant *'almost all journalists in interior of Sindh are working in unrewarding and exploitative camps. Just there may be four or five channels in Pakistan who might be paying to some extent their reporters'* (Larkana focus group). In summary, according to these participants few of the journalists are paid. One of them said that just *'four or five channels'* in Pakistan might be paying their reporters. Further, regarding the TV channels who might be paying their reporters one other participant added that *'those few which pay a salary to journalists, however, they have not a similar policy for all journalists. They have different policies for those who work in Karachi (Urban and the media city) and those who work in the interior of Sindh'*, (Larkana focus group). According to this participant, even the few media organisations which do pay their journalists, discriminate and pay a larger salary to urban than to rural journalists.

Some of the participants also explained the appointment criteria of the media organisations or owners. One participant said *'they (media organisation and owners) will prefer an unskilled person who agrees to work free of cost compared to an M.A degree holder demanding salary'* (Hyderabad focus group). Another participant belonging to another focus group expounded that *'media organisations appoint reporters also on the approach of politicians and feudal lords because one day they would become MPAs (Members of Provincial Assembly) and MNAs (Members of National Assembly)'* (Khairpur focus group). However, the participants also commented that such an appointment would have no legal recognition. In the words of one participant who explained in detail: *'in Pakistan with the exception of a few media organisations no journalist can prove that he has been an employee of any media organisation even just for a day, though he has been working for fifteen years with no authority letter, no proof, particularly in Sindhi media'* (Karachi focus group). On enquiring from the moderator *'no appointment letter?'*, the participant repeated his answer in the following way *'no appointment letter, no contract letter, no daily wages letter'* (Karachi focus group). In a similar vein another participant from another focus group also shared a similar fact that *'all journalists in the media organisations are appointed without issuing any letter'* (Hyderabad focus group).

The result of a situation in which journalists are either underpaid or unpaid and in any event not given a written contract of employment, according to one participant, is that *'as a result definitely there will be corruption'* (Hyderabad focus group). And it was admitted by some other participants that corruption is found among journalists. As one participant said that *'there are one kind of journalists who are playing their role*

*honestly, however, other kind of journalists are practicing corruption in the name of journalism, they blackmail people and various departments and in the name of press clubs they have set up little business shops and are damaging the reputation of press'* (Thatta focus group). The statement of the above participant implies that one of the purposes to establish separate press clubs by the groups of journalists is to extort money individually and not share the received amount with a large number of journalists. Another participant said that *'there are so many examples that journalists extort monthly fixed amounts from various places. If it is complained against them to their media organisations, there is no use of it, because, the media organisations also need money, nothing else'* (Khairpur focus group). In other words, such a practice takes place under the nose of the journalists' own media organisations. Another participant, acknowledging the practice of corruption among journalists, justified it in the following way *'the first thing is the salary journalists draw monthly. Does it suffice to meet the expenses of the journalist's family? Absolutely not, therefore, when journalist goes to the field he puts away the profession and tries to earn unfairly'* (Hyderabad focus group).

Two other participants said that governments also bribe journalists to control them and to have an influence over the news media. One of them said *'journalists are bribed, this is also an indirect tool to influence the media'* (Karachi focus group). Another explained the kind of bribes offered by governments: *'journalists are offered reliefs in the form of government jobs and financial packages'* (Sukkur focus group). Finally, in the words of one participant: *'unless there is change in media organisations the conditions of journalists would not improve'* (Thatta focus group). But it seems improbably that such a change will take place because *'there is no accountability of media organisations'* (Hyderabad focus group) in regard to their attitude towards news people.

### **7.3 Tools of state to restrain the news media**

#### **7.3.1 Media as an industry and blocking of advertisement**

One participant sets the background: *'during the past eleven years of General Musharf the media were banned many times ..... and journalists were put behind bars and baton-charged'* (Thatta focus group). Then it was observed that being a part of a third world and developing country, however, the news-workers in Sindh, have come to the realization that the *'media now have become an industry'* (Karachi focus group).

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Therefore, in the consequence of the media becoming an industry, one participant interpreted the metamorphosis in this way that, *'media have become an industry and in that situation the freedom of journalists is dwindling'* (Karachi focus group). The main reason that the result of the media becoming an industry has been the curtailment of the professional autonomy of journalists was explained by another participant: *'when the government offers relief in the form of advertisements and that is the weakness of businessmen (media organisation owners)'* (Sukkur focus group). In this way, in the words of one participant, although the *'state has various tools to control the media'* (Hyderabad focus group), their chief tool for twisting the arms of the news media is "advertisement". As four participants from the District Hyderabad focus group, three participants from the District Larkana focus group, two participants from the District Khairpur focus group, and three participants from the District Sukkur focus group, one way expressed it: *'blocking advertisements'* is the main tool of the government or state *'if the media organisation does not accept their terms'* (Thatta focus group), or to *'bring the media along state lines'* (Hyderabad focus group). As one participant explained in detail *'we do not report or publish too much news about the government or ministers, because, it may cause our advertisement to be blocked by the Government Information Department or may any minister be annoyed with us or we may not receive cheques on time from the Information Department'* (Karachi Focus Group). Moreover, about the power of the "advertisement blocking" tool, one participant put an example that *'in past there were so many newspapers whose editors were comrade sort of persons (leftist-ward leaning political activists), so when the advertisements of those newspapers were blocked the newspapers were closed'* (Sukkur focus group).

Another participant however, gave the impression that this all 'controlling of the media by state' is a process. As in his words *'firstly, they (the government) buy owners, then directly journalists, if this policy does not work, then they torture'* (Sukkur focus group). And an almost similar view about the process of controlling the media was expressed by a participant in another district in these words: *'instead of controlling each journalist individually they put price tags on media organisations, if media organisations are beyond shopping then they block their advertisement and paper. So media owners bow down'* (Khairpur Focus group) to them.

### **7.3.2 Breaking the transmission of channels**

Among the various tools applied to privately owned television channels is the *'transmission of channels is cut'* (Sukkur focus group). One participant from the District Larkana focus group also added that *'snapping the transmission of channels'* is also a tool applied to control the media. And one other participant said about another way of controlling the news media is *'if sometimes they (government) cannot control through PEMRA (Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority) they snap the cable system'* (Karachi focus group).

### **7.3.3 Legislation and ban**

About the legislation of media laws one participant gave his impression that the *'government keeps all the media laws in its control (favour)'* (Khairpur focus group). Moreover, about the media regulatory body PEMRA (Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority) the two participants commented that *'PEMRA is a tool to guard media freedom'* (Karachi focus group) and *'now they (the state) have formulated PEMRA, and now its main purpose is to keep the media under control'* (Karachi focus group). The other two participants used the words "censorship" and "media advice" to mention that those two are government laws which are used to control the media. About the way of applying those laws one participant detailed it in following way that *'they (the government) impose censorship law, or sometimes media advice i.e. before publishing the final copy of newspaper, the newspaper has to be shown'* (Larkana focus group). In conclusion, the focus group participants mentioned the following tools by which the government maintains control of the news media: block the advertisements of the media organisations, cutting the transmission of privately owned television channels, and government media laws which impose a ban through censorship and media advice.

### **7.4 Security conditions of the journalists in Sindh**

The purpose of this research question was to examine journalists' perception of their level of physical safety as they perform their jobs, and to find out what type of threats, if any, they receive and from whom. Hence, in this regard the participants expressed that they have security threats and they stated the security situation in the following views that *'journalist has many security problems'* (Hyderabad focus group), and *'journalists have not any security either from the government or personally'* (Khairpur focus group). Therefore, one participants said that *'while reporting in the field the journalist feels*

*himself insecure*’ (Larkana focus group), and another mentioned that *‘in Sindh many journalists have lost their lives’* (Hyderabad focus group).

### **7.4.1 Vulnerability of rural journalists**

Moreover, the participants while identifying rural journalists with terms like journalists in *‘village areas’*, the *‘Interior of Sindh’*, and *‘non-metropolitan cities’* said that these rural journalists compared with urban are more vulnerable to physical threats. One participant said that *‘those journalists who are working in metropolitan cities are safer in comparison to those who are working in non-metropolitan cities because the latter are easily identified and targeted’* (Thatta focus group). Similarly, participants from different focus groups said that *‘particularly in the interior of Sindh there is no security’* (Sukkur focus group) and *‘particularly in interior Sindh journalists suffer more. They are directly close to threats’* (Karachi focus group), or *‘it is very hard to report particularly in interior of Sindh’* (Larkana focus group), and according to one participant due to the following reasons rural journalists are more vulnerable, as in his words that *‘in village areas (rural Sindh) reporters are threatened, kidnapped and murdered’* (Hyderabad focus group).

### **7.4.2 Tri-sided threat**

Regarding the threats felt and received by the journalists in Sindh province while in the line of duty the participants pointed their fingers in the following three directions:

#### **Feudalistic threats**

To begin with, while differentiating between feudalists and journalists one participant explained *‘ basically feudal lords want to maintain their status quo, and on the contrary most of the journalists are agents of change, if change comes the feudal lords would not be able to maintain their hold, dominance and status quo through unfair means’* (Karachi focus group). Therefore, *‘they (feudalists) are totally against the force of change and journalists’* (Karachi focus group), and *‘they (feudalists) even do not tolerate a small single column of news against them’* (Khairpur focus group) or according to one other participant even *‘the feudal lords, tribal chiefs, DPOs (District Police Officers) would never like that journalists perform their duties professionally and responsibly’* (Larkana focus group). Particularly, according to a participant, when the situation is that *‘in government there is involvement and dominance of feudal lords’* (Sukkur focus group) or *‘within the state there are little states of feudal lords and tribal*

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chiefs,(Larkana focus group) then *'they (feudal lords) never like that a journalist belonging to lower class should expose their activities'* (Larkana focus group). Rather than in consequence according to a participant *'if any journalist reports honestly and anything is published against the feudal lords or elected Member of Parliament then the journalist has to face a lot'*(Sukkur focus group). One other participant also likewise said that *'if something goes against the feudal lords one cannot escape'* (Sukkur focus group). Therefore, it was also stated in the following words of one participant that *'you may observe in the town areas, the journalists cannot report anything against the wish and will of feudal lords or tribal chiefs'* (Sukkur focus group). Because, *'when the news events about violations of human rights and disgracing the women are focused on and exposed in the media then journalists are called to the bungalows of feudal lords and punished'* (Sukkur focus group), or *'journalists are pressurized and intimidated by police and feudal lords as well'* (Sukkur focus group). In conclusion, rural journalists face physical threats from feudal lords.

### **Law-enforcing and intelligence agency threats**

Regarding the role of government law-enforcing and intelligence agencies in making threats to the journalists one participant stated that *'journalists are threatened by police, rangers and army'* (Larkana focus group). Another participant said that *'if any journalist dispatches an exclusive and important news story to a media organisation, he is disturbed by intelligence agencies'* (Thatta focus group). Moreover in the context of measuring the severity of the threat posed by different governments or state organisations the participants stated, firstly, about the police , that *'attitude of police is already aggressive and dangerous towards journalists'* (Thatta focus group) and one participant said that the *'police is the greatest threat to journalists'* (Khairpur focus group). About the other forces a participant stated that *'to some extent journalists can face the police but it is riskier to report against the rangers and army'* (Hyderabad focus group), About the role of intelligence agencies in making threats to journalists one participant said that *'journalists are abducted by intelligence agencies'* (Larkana focus group).

### **Political party threats**

Some participants along with feudal lords, law enforcing agencies and intelligence agencies also included the political parties among those who make threats to journalists in Sindh. As one participant put it *'political parties do threaten. When you report or*



*publish some news against any political party the next day they will be after you'* (Karachi focus group), in a similar vein one other participant expressed his view that *'politicians at local level while sitting on treasury benches threaten journalists, implicate them in bogus police cases and pressurize their families and relatives'* (Khairpur focus group). In summary, although focus group participants might have been threatened from other sides as well, the above discussed three-pronged threat came up more often than others.

### **7.4.3 Stand of the state towards the situation of security threats to the journalists**

About the prevailing physical security perspective discussed above, the posture of the state or government in the words of participants is that the *'state does not provide us any security'* (Larkana focus group), the *'government has never thought about this'* (Thatta focus group). Therefore, the *'state has failed in providing security to journalists, it has not any mechanism to provide security to journalists so they can report honestly'* (Hyderabad focus group). Instead of providing security one participant rather said that *'there is no security and earlier I told you that to keep journalists under threat they keep the law loose in this context, no security'* (Karachi focus group).

### **7.5 Role of media organisations and press clubs in professional development of Sindh journalists**

In this section the focus group participants discussed the role of media organisations and press clubs in the professional development of employees and press club members.

Two participants belonging to different focus groups admitted that *'journalists lack training extremely'* (Thatta focus group) and that *'all over Sindh journalists lack training'* (Sukkur focus group). Another participant agreed: *'enthusiastic persons join newspapers and learn there, because, there is no other form'* of professional training (Hyderabad focus group). The views of these participants were supported by the following: *'all newcomers in media organisations join as untrained and then they learn on their own'* (Hyderabad focus group) or *'novices join journalism and with the passage of time they learn through the media organisations'* (Karachi focus group). Working journalists learn on the job, as another participant pointed out. *'media organisations adopt them (new entrants) as apprentices, they work on a small amount'* (Karachi focus group), but *'new entrants learn from friends and seniors, however, the organisations do not impart any formal training'* (Karachi focus group). Participants explained the role of

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media organisations in the following way that *‘in media organisations there is no concept of a professional career development of journalists’* (Hyderabad focus group), *‘in media organisations there is no training section, no there is not any such thing’* (Karachi focus group). The other two participants implied that government, as well as media organisations, have a role to play in the career development of journalists: *‘as far as professional training is concerned they have not yet imparted, neither media organisations nor government’* (Khairpur focus group) or *‘neither media organisations nor state has fulfilled their responsibility’* (Larkana focus group). Another participant stated that *‘in my career of fifteen years in journalism I never recall that even once that a media organisation has called me for imparting training’* (Thatta focus group).

Participants were also critical of the role of press clubs in the professional career development of Sindh journalists. Many participants from different focus groups expressed their views on this as follows, *‘regarding press clubs my observation is that we cannot hope for such things from them’* (Hyderabad focus group), or *‘the role of press clubs is negative, there is no professional career development of journalists’* (Hyderabad focus group). One other participant expressed his view about the press clubs in the following words. *‘Press clubs in Pakistan are just engaged in grouping and leg-pulling, they do not arrange any training or workshop’* (Larkana focus group); according to another participant *‘though time to time press clubs have been granted funds by ministers they have not yet launched any such journalistic training program’* (Thatta focus group). However one participant from a rural area of Sindh, differentiating between urban and rural press clubs stated that *‘training programs for journalists are organised in Karachi and Hyderabad press clubs, however, at other press clubs there is nothing’* (Sukkur press club). Almost all the participants were very critical about the role of press clubs in the professional career development of the journalists or in organising, arranging and imparting any formal training to the journalists. However as far as learning the skills of writing and reporting news in an informal way is concerned, one participant credited the press clubs in Sindh in the following way that *‘as far as press clubs are concerned they have a little role, when any novice joins journalism he works with senior journalists and gradually learns from them’* (Karachi press club).

Overall the participants credited both media organisations and press clubs for their role in the professional career development of the journalists in the following way that *‘both press clubs and media organisations have zero level roles in the professional*

*development of journalists'* (Larkana focus group) and still *'press clubs and media organisations have not taken any step in this regard'* (Sukkur focus group). However in contrast one participant said that *'social organisations do organise workshops for journalists, but government or media organisations have no role'* (Hyderabad focus group).

### **7.6 Factionalism among Sindh journalists and its reasons**

To begin with, it is nowadays commonly observable that almost in all the districts of Sindh, instead of being at one platform, journalists are found distributed into various groups. Some journalists have established new/separate press clubs, having seceded from the district press clubs. Others have grouped themselves under the flag of a specific media organisation. Therefore, the chief purpose of this research question was to know and assess the reasons behind such groupings among journalists in Sindh province, Pakistan. In this regard the two participants belonging to one urban focus group started in this way that *'there are many reasons'* (Karachi focus group) or *'there are various factors involved in dividing the journalists'* (Karachi focus group).

#### **7.6.1 Conspiracy by media organisations/owners**

One of the various reasons which the participants enlisted in their responses was *'conspiracy by media organisations'*. As four participants said that, along with other factors, media organisations are also responsible for the division among journalists in following their words that *'media organisations are also involved'* (Hyderabad focus group), and *'media organisations are involved in dividing the journalists'* (Karachi focus group). The third participant while placing the responsibility with media owners also revealed their interest behind the division among the journalists in following manner that *'media owners also want the division of journalists, because, journalists back bite each other, in this way the organisations stay well-aware of the activities of their reporters from whom they extort money and how much money they extort so the media organisations also can have a share of it'* (Khairpur focus group). The fourth participant, along with media organisations also blamed the state, in his words *'the reasons behind it (groupings) are media organisations and the state'* (Larkana focus group).

### **7.6.2 Conspiracy by state/government**

Moreover, about the involvement of state behind the rifts among journalists six other participant underpinned this theory by stating that *‘official authorities also want their groups, so the journalists will be weaker’* (Larkana focus group), the *‘state wants the journalists to be divided’*, (Thatta focus group), *‘itself in the media there are some non-serious journalists so the state divides the journalists’* (Thatta focus group), and *‘they (the state) want journalists to be divided, they will never like to see the unity of journalists’* (Thatta focus group). One other participant while enumerating many factors behind the rifts among journalists not only took the name of the state but also called it a chief beneficiary in the following way that *‘the chief stakeholder is the Establishment of the state’* (Karachi focus group). Regarding the tactics of state in dividing the journalists one participant said that *‘government people by various tactics create groupings as they can damage the press’* (Thatta focus group). And some other tactics as were stated by one participant follows that *‘they (the government people) buy journalists, award them government contracts and offer hard cash even and put pressure upon them’* (Thatta focus group). Added to that one of the tactic used at district level as told by one participant is the *‘government formulates policies at district level they divide journalists into groups, and for that purpose they prepare lists of journalists who would be obliged and who would not be obliged with information collection at district level government departments’* (Thatta focus group). And the participant continued that *‘to a great extent the government has had success in creating rifts among journalists’* (Thatta focus group).

### **7.6.3 Interference by political parties**

Some participants cited involvement or interference by political parties as one of the factors behind the rifts among the journalists in Sindh. One participant said that *‘other reason political parties as well place their persons in the press clubs’* (Karachi focus group). Another participant mentioned that nationalist and federalist parties both do this: *‘political parties both national and federal’* (Karachi focus group). Moreover, one participant mentioned the names of the main federal political parties. *‘There is political involvement. The PPP (Pakistan Peoples’ Party) would like one of theirs to be the president of the press club and the Muslim League would like one of theirs to be the president of the press club’* (Larkana focus group). And a similar view was given by another participant from another focus group that *‘The specific persons of MNAs*

*(Member of National Assembly) and MPAs (Member of Parliament Assembly) who work for their interests are the office-bearers of press clubs and keep a hold upon press clubs'* (Sukkur focus group). In conclusion it seems that politics or politicians have also a part in getting the journalists divided into groups.

### **7.6.4 The monopoly of senior journalists at press clubs**

Another reason for the factionalism among journalists, in the view of one participant, was that *'one of the main reasons for grouping is senior journalists'* (Khairpur focus group). Different participants gave different reasons why senior journalists have become the cause of rifts. One participant said that it was the result of the emergence of electronic media. He stated that *'this is the era of electronic media and senior journalists which belong to print media have lessened their importance, so they have nothing to do and just conspire and poison the ears of junior journalists against each other'* (Khairpur focus group). However, another participant, categorizing the journalists into two political ideologies, said that *'there are two categories of journalists first those who joined journalism before 1990, who used to report in favour and praise of bureaucracy and bureaucrats. The second category is of those fresh blood and idealists who belonged to the politics of leftism, so after 1990 when the Soviet Union of Russia was dismantled they came to the profession of journalism. And due to the arrival of these left-wingers the seniors became disturbed'* (Thatta focus group).

The opinions of other participants implied that somehow these senior journalists want to keep establishing their monopoly upon the press clubs and do not allow press club membership to others. As one participant described the situation: *'actually the number of journalists who write and report stories sitting in hotels is more than the member journalists of this press club where we are sitting now. However, if you will not accept them and for a long period are not awarded them membership of the press club then they will set up new groups or press clubs'* (Thatta focus group). The view of this participant also got support of another participant from a different focus group in the following words: *'in the press clubs of small cities membership is not awarded to junior journalists, therefore, they are divided into groups and they set up their separate press clubs'* (Khairpur focus group).

The reasons for not allowing membership to the junior journalists by senior journalists one participant explained in this way: *'due to fear of defeat in election seniors do not award membership to junior journalists, therefore, the juniors get*

*disappointed and set up new press clubs*’ (Hyderabad focus group). The other reasons for not allowing press club membership to new entrants, young or junior journalists is that *‘since years vested interest type of persons have occupied the press clubs, they have linkages with government departments and they extort money from there. Therefore, if new entrant enters in the field of journalism, they fear that the share of extorted money will dwindle in value, therefore, they (senior journalists) do not own to new entrants’* (Karachi focus group). In a similar vein another participant also mentioned a similar reason for not allowing press club membership to junior journalists, in his words *‘because the number of shares will increase in the booty’* (Khairpur focus group).

### **7.6.5 Leadership and press club funds**

The other main reasons behind rifts among journalists according to the participants are leadership and funds. In regards to leadership, many participants said something like the participant who explained *‘they want to be office-bears of the club’* (Khairpur focus group), *‘everybody likes to establish one’s dominance or aspire to be the officer-bearer of the press club’* (Khairpur focus group), *‘clash of interest and a desire to be a leader are the reasons behind grouping’* (Larkana focus group). Some participants even mentioned the reasons for the interest by the journalists to be leaders or office bearers of the press clubs in the following way that *‘leadership is the main reason because when one becomes president of the press club he is recognized everywhere, in press conferences DCOs (District Coordination Officers), DPOs (District Police Officers) address him or when the president of press club meets politicians they honour him’* (Larkana focus group). Another participant stated that *‘we are agro-based and a feudal society, so everyone wants to be leader; because, if someone becomes the president of the press club, automatically, his personal relations increase in society’* (Larkana focus group). In addition to that some participants also identified funds, which are given to the district press clubs by government or ministers, as one of the reasons for rifts among journalists. As one participant said: *‘funds are given to press clubs so conflicts over funds and conflicts over becoming the president of the press club’* (Sukkur focus group) are also reasons. Another participant identified funds as the reason for funds as the source of divisions: *‘the reason for grouping is funds which are deposited in the account of press club’* (Larkana focus group). Moreover, one participant while calling the funds a bone of contention among journalists also mentioned how frequently those funds are received by the press clubs: *‘funds which the district government or the Sindh*

*government awards annually*' (Sukkur focus group). More significant, as one participant noted about funds held by press clubs, was that *'there is no check and balance of them'* (Sukkur focus group).

Finally, another reason for the rifts among journalists is ethnic differences, particularly between Sindhi and Urdu speaking journalists. Regarding this reason one participant stated in detail that *'particularly, in our region (Sindh province) there is ethnic difference. There was a time in the Karachi Press Club that Sindhi journalist could not enter, he was not allowed to enter. This time the Karachi Press Club membership was not open because they knew that the number of Sindhi journalists would increase'* (Karachi focus group). In this way according to the following view of one urban focus group participant regarding reasons behind the rifts among journalists in Sindh province, Pakistan that *'basically the problem is that media organisations should pay salary to journalists. These problems develop due to non-payment of salaries'* (Karachi focus group).

### **7.7 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter has used focus groups data to examine some of the main issues dealt with by Sindh journalists. It looked at the attitude of the state towards news media. Participants agree that there is a relationship between development of electronic media in Pakistan and media freedom. In addition, the overall attitude of the state towards the news media under both democratic and dictatorial rules was discussed.

A further question was the attitudes of state and media owners/organisations towards Sindh journalists. Participants discussed the tools the state keeps and applies to control journalists in Sindh. This chapter also looked at the vulnerability of rural journalists in Sindh as well as types of threats to journalists. The prevailing security situation of the journalists and what has been the stand of the state was also discussed. Finally the role of media organisations and press clubs in professional development of journalists was examined. The reasons of factionalism among journalists were also investigated.

## **8 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF SURVEY AND FOCUS GROUPS**

### **8.1 Introduction**

The first seven chapters of this study looked at a variety of issues which impact Sindh journalists as they seek to carry out their responsibilities. This last chapter provides a general summary and discussion of the main findings of the study, the contribution of this study to the body of knowledge, the limitations of the study, and suggestions for further studies about journalists in Sindh or Pakistan.

The purpose of this study was to assess the role and status of journalists in Sindh. The methods used to collect data were firstly, a cross sectional survey of journalists across Sindh through a questionnaire composed mainly of close-ended questions, which were constructed from a literature review of journalistic studies conducted in various countries and territories of world. The sample of survey data consisted of a total of 576 journalists who worked in both state-owned and privately owned media organisations, the majority (60.8%) of them in daily newspapers. Almost three fifths (57.4%) of the respondents came from the rural part of Sindh and the rest (42.6%) from the urban part. Secondly, in total 30 participants took part in six focus group discussions at six different purposively selected districts of Sindh – two in urban Sindh and four in rural Sindh. Focus group participants worked in both print and broadcast media. On average they were between twenty five to forty years old.

The survey data provided a basis on which to construct a socio-economic profile of the journalists who composed the sample, and examined personal characteristics such as age, gender, mother tongue, religion, monthly income and education related variables; Weaver assumes that a relationship exists between the personal backgrounds of journalists and what is reported in various media around the world (D. H. Weaver, 1998b). In addition, work-background and job related variables of respondents, i.e. job satisfaction, job security, job importance and commitment level have also been summarized.

Opinions of Sindh journalists about the role and functions of news media have been compared with opinions of journalists in other countries regarding their own national media; in addition, their political affiliation, ideologies, computer literacy, professional training, attitude, beliefs and values, have been examined and compared. The study has also looked at how free Sindh media workers perceived themselves to be and how much professional autonomy they considered themselves to have, as well as the media which they consume and how much credibility they assign to that media. The questions related to media freedom and professional autonomy were included because, in Pakistan recently there has been an upsurge



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in support for independence of media from government control, and media independence has been on the agenda of most of the popular political struggles in Pakistan's history from 1960s, 1970s and 1980s (Gilani, 2000, p. 20).

The focus groups looked at the attitude of the state towards news media and journalists, and how the state or government has been restraining the news media in Pakistan. Next, the physical security situation for Sindh journalists has been discussed. Finally, the role of news media organisations and press clubs in the professional development of news people in Sindh, the factionalism among Sindh journalists and the reasons for those rifts among Sindh journalists have been presented.

### **8.2 Summary and discussion of the main findings**

#### **8.2.1 *Survey data***

Altogether 576 completed questionnaires received from twenty two of the twenty three, districts of Sindh were analysed. The highest proportion (42.6%) of the surveyed journalists worked in District Karachi and Hyderabad, the urban part and media cities of Sindh, where almost all media outlets of Sindh are situated; it seems that the media and the media personnel are concentrated predominantly in these two cities, which are the two largest cities of Sindh. By contrast, the three districts of Sindh which are considered the most underdeveloped in terms of economic and education development yielded the fewest returned surveys; this suggests that economic and education development are the main drivers behind the development of the media sector. Moreover the findings of the survey show that 98.1% of the surveyed respondents were male and 79.6% were 40 years old or less. Ethnically the majority (70.9%) of the surveyed journalists were Sindhi, and religiously the overwhelming number (96.7%) were Muslims. More than three fifths (63.8%) said that they had sought a final degree from university. And finally regarding monthly income from journalism, the majority (69.1%) of the surveyed Sindh journalists are financially exploited, as 49.1% were underpaid and 20.0% unpaid.

The majority (68.4%) of the Sindh news-workers served as news-reporting journalists, and 68.2% said that they had a work experience of more than five years. Further, three fifths (60.8%) of the respondents said that they worked for Sindhi, Urdu and English language newspapers. However, out of a total of 508, the overwhelming majority (73.4%) of those Sindh journalists who worked in non-English language media, whether print or electronic, wished to work for English media, if given the chance; the reasons given were

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first, the power and status of English media (30.0%); second, the comparatively good remuneration paid by English media (16.7%); the highest proportion (34.3%) cited both reasons. The overwhelming majority (94.3%) of the surveyed journalists worked in privately owned media organisations; for 77.9% of them journalism was their full-time profession.

Regarding job security, although the highest proportion (46.4%) of the respondents felt their jobs were not secure, 12.7% even reported that their jobs were ‘not very secure’. However, the majority (71.4%) of the journalists were satisfied with their jobs, 23.6% of them ‘very satisfied’. The great majority (87.7%) of the Sindh news-workers said that their job was important; 44.9% of them said it was ‘very important’. Therefore, the majority (60.2%) of the surveyed journalists said that they would continue in journalism even if a better job in some other field was available. About the role of the media: the Sindh journalists first supported the statement that media should play an ‘information analysis and public advocacy’ role; under this heading they emphasized, first, the accuracy, objectivity and timeliness of news; then that media should analyze complex issues, investigate government claims, and give ordinary people a chance to express their views; overall that media should perform the role of watchdog against the government and in society. The second role that Sindh journalists say that media should play is ‘dissemination of political awareness’; the media should educate the public about politicians’ viewpoints and how government operates, which may bring stability to the democratic system of the country. The third role Sindh journalists say media should play is ‘national development’: in other words, that media should portray a positive image of the national leaders and the country, support government development programs, and also propagate government policy.

As regards computer literacy and professional training 53.3% of the surveyed Sindh journalists said they have formally learned to use a computer; the majority (77.2%) of them also said that they use a computer in their job, however, 14.9% of these said ‘sometimes’. The majority (53.1%) had not received any pre-job journalistic training before joining journalism as a profession. 71.0% said they had received on-the-job training but still the overwhelming majority (95.1%) said that they need to be trained further, particularly in the skills of news reporting (35.47%) and media laws and ethics (24.71%).

As regards political affiliation, the majority (64.4%) said that they were not affiliated with any political party. However the overwhelming majority (94.9%) was not only registered to vote but also had voted in elections (90.4%). And the awesome majority (82.7%) had also voted during the last elections in Pakistan in 2008. Ideologically the majority (59.8%) of Sindh journalists are liberal.

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As regards their level of professionalism, the majority (71.1%) of the surveyed Sindh journalists were members of press clubs/organisations; the highest proportion (44.9%) of them considered Sindh press clubs to be both social clubs and news-gathering organisations. The majority (88.4%) said that they share news information with their press club colleagues, however 32.8% of them ‘sometimes’. The first most consumed medium by Sindh journalists is the newspaper; 67.0% said they read it ‘very frequently’; the second most consumed medium is television which is viewed ‘very frequently’ by 64.5% of the surveyed Sindh journalists. In contrast the least consumed media by Sindh journalists are magazines (13.5%) and then radio (10.20%).

As regards their view of the credibility of the media in Pakistan the majority of the Sindh journalists (61.0%) believed that the credibility of print media is higher than that of electronic. Additionally, the highest proportion (42.9%) also believed that English media are more credible than Sindhi and Urdu language media. The majority (52.2%) of the respondents said that the newspaper is the most widely consumed medium in Sindh.

As regards media freedom and professional autonomy, the overwhelming majority of the respondents (91.6%) said that there is no ‘complete freedom’. Similarly the majority (70.8% and 66.0% respectively) said that they do not have ‘complete freedom’ to select news stories and choose which aspect of the news story to emphasise. Additionally, though the simple majority (52.2%) of the Sindh journalists said that they were accredited by the government, the highest proportion (47.5%) did not support the statement that such accreditation is assigned on merit. In the end regarding factors which restrain Sindh journalists from the pursuit of journalistic ideals, the first factor that influences the Sindh journalists ‘a lot’ was ‘media organisation’s policy’ (60.5%) and second ‘government media laws’ (35.5%). However, the least influential factor in the pursuit of journalistic ideals was the ‘personal values’ (16.9%) of the journalists.

### **8.2.2 Focus group data**

The attitude of state towards news media and journalists in Pakistan has been changing. During military rule the grip of restrictions, control and censorship becomes severe, and during feudo-cratic (feudal democratic) governments to some extent the media have been free. Therefore there always has been friction between state and media. However, against this background generally media owners do not allow their relationship with the government to become strained; instead, they pursue a “give and take policy” at the expense of their journalists. As a result, no government has ever seemed to be serious about implementing the

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wage board award (a committee established by government to fix the salaries of journalists) for journalists. In return, media owners seem to manipulate the presentation of news in the favour of government.

The government does not seem to pay any attention to the issues of journalists, who always work under the pressure of the state and feudalists. When journalists report news about the abuses of the government, law enforcement agencies, intelligence agencies and feudalists, even their families are sometimes threatened. The relationship between media organisations and journalists, particularly rural journalists, is an exploitative one in terms of remuneration. Sometimes media organisations even fire journalists at the request of politicians. The other form of exploitation by media organisations is that journalists have to collect advertisements along with news reporting for their media organisations, which is against journalistic ideals. However, journalists are compelled to do so due to job insecurity. A few media organisations discriminate against rural journalists in terms of remuneration, as rural journalists tend to be paid less than urban ones. In hiring, media organisations prefer those who are unskilled or novices, as they are ready to work for little or no pay. Sometimes journalists are appointed at the request of politicians. Another interesting point is that, in most cases, journalists who have been employed, even for many years, cannot prove in court that they have ever been employees of any media organisation. As a result of such treatment at the hands of media organisations there has been financial corruption among journalists and sensationalist reporting. In some cases the media organisations know very well about the unethical practices of their journalists.

Since the development of private electronic broadcasting the media are now a full-fledged industry in Pakistan. However, this has curtailed the professional autonomy of journalists, because media owners have become dependent on government advertisements. Advertising is thus one of the main tools which the government uses to manipulate the news media; cutting the transmission of private cable TV channels is another tool. Further, regarding media laws some focus group participants said that PEMRA (Pakistan Electronic Media Regulatory Authority) has been formulated to control the media. In addition, censorship and *media advice laws* have also been applied as controlling tools. Because of media advice laws, in the past, newspapers had to receive government approval on a daily basis before publication.

As regards security conditions it was found that Sindh journalists view themselves as being insecure; in particular rural journalists are more vulnerable in terms of their physical security, because they can be easily identified by those whose abuses they report, i.e.

politicians, feudalists, tribal chiefs, law-enforcing agencies and the intelligence agencies of those localities. Sometimes political parties also threaten Sindh journalists through their political workers. Against the backdrop of such security conditions, governments have no mechanism to provide appropriate security to journalists.

Generally Sindh journalists lack professional skills and training, because the custom is that prospective journalists learn from senior colleagues. However, media organisations do not have any mechanism for importing formal training to novices. Similarly, the Sindh press clubs do not have any plan for professional training and career development of their members. Rather elected representatives of the press clubs are involved in factionalism and in-fighting, despite the fact that from time to time the press clubs have been granted funds by ministers or governments for the development of press clubs and the welfare of journalists.

Moreover the element of factionalism among Sindh journalists is common in almost all districts of Sindh. For example, some journalists have moved away from the main/basic district press clubs and established their own separate press clubs. Others have grouped themselves under the flagship of some specific media organisations. The reasons for such factionalism may be conspiracies by media organisations, media owners, state or government. The further tactics of the state or government to divide journalists are buying them by awarding government contracts, offering hard cash, and pressurizing. At district level the governments divide journalists into groups. And for that purpose they prepare lists of journalists who should be supplied news and who should not. Moreover, political parties also divide journalists by placing their members in the press club, who are then elected to posts within the press clubs, and serve the interests of their political parties. The other main reason for division among journalists is the monopoly established by senior journalists, who rarely award press club membership to junior journalists.

### **8.2.3 *The Sindh Journalist***

In conclusion the findings show that the typical Sindh journalist is male and young (40 years old or less). Ethnically he is Sindhi, by faith Muslim, and university-educated. However, financially the typical Sindh journalist is both underpaid and unpaid. And geographically Sindh journalists can be categorized into two groups, those from urban areas and those from rural areas. As regards work background, the typical Sindh journalist is a news reporter of a privately owned Sindhi language newspaper with work experience of more than five years and wishes to work for the English-language media, due to better remuneration paid by English media organisations and the higher social status and clout that come from working in

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English media, because the English media have audiences in the ruling and elite class of the country. Additionally for the typical Sindh journalist, journalism is a full-time profession. And despite the fact that the typical Sindh journalist suffers from a feeling of job insecurity, he demonstrates a high degree of professional commitment by registering a determination not to leave the profession, even if another better job was available. The Sindh journalist is not only satisfied with his job but also considers it as important.

The three main roles in decreasing order that the Sindh journalist says that the media should play are first, 'information analysis and public advocacy' which due to its function items gathered through factor analysis relates to the watchdog role of the media. The second role is 'dissemination of political awareness' which apparently indicates that the Sindh journalist wants the media to help in the stabilisation of the democratic system in the country. The third role which the Sindh journalist wants the media to play is 'national development' which stands closer to the concept of development support journalism or developmental journalism. In regards to computer literacy and professional training the typical Sindh journalist is computer-literate and uses a computer in his job. However, before becoming a journalist he had not received any training; afterwards, notwithstanding the fact that the Sindh journalist has availed himself of on-the-job training and experience, he still feels the need to be trained further, particularly in the skill of news-reporting and orientation of media laws and ethics. Though the Sindh journalist is politically non-affiliated, not only is he registered to vote but also he has cast his vote in elections and ideologically follows liberalism.

In terms of professionalism, the typical Sindh journalist is a press club/organisation member and he considers the Sindh press clubs both as social clubs and news-gathering organisations. Therefore the Sindh journalist also shares news information with his colleagues at the press club. In terms of media consumption the Sindh journalist is first a newspaper reader, and then a television viewer. Regarding media credibility the Sindh journalist believes that print media have more credibility than electronic and English media enjoys more credibility than Sindhi and Urdu language media in Pakistan. Further he also adds that in Sindh, Pakistan newspapers are the most widely consumed mass medium. As far as media freedom is concerned the Sindh journalist feels that he does not enjoy complete media freedom and professional autonomy. And notwithstanding being accredited by the government, the Sindh journalist doubts that such accreditation is assigned on merit. The Sindh journalist also feels that the policy of his employer media organisation and government media laws are the two main constraints, respectively, in his pursuit of journalistic ideals.

Finally the Sindh journalist has been working in a situation where the attitude of the state towards the news media undergoes extreme changes under dictatorial regimes and milder changes under feudo-cracy(feudal democracy); however, under neither type of political system is there absolute media freedom. Therefore proper attention has not yet been paid by state or media organisations to the development of their socio-economic conditions or professional status. Rather journalists are exploited and discriminated against financially by media organisations before the very eyes of state or government. The Sindh journalist is also pressurized and threatened by government, law enforcing agencies, intelligence agencies, and feudalists. Particularly rural Sindh journalists are more vulnerable from the perspective of security; because they are easily identifiable by politicians, feudalists, tribal chiefs, and law-enforcement agencies when they report any news against them. Due to vested interests and conspiracies by media organisations, political parties and the government, the unity of Sindh journalists in press clubs is threatened by factionalism.

### **8.2.4 *The Sindh Journalist in Comparative Context***

The concentration of Sindh journalists in the two largest and best-developed cities of Sindh, one of them *Karachi* the capital city, is similar to the situation reported by Mwesige that a great majority of Ugandan journalists worked in the capital city of Uganda (Mwesige, 2004). It was also observed that in Sindh journalism is a profession for males. This is similar to the situation reported in numerous journalistic studies, for instance, Weaver's (1998) collection of journalistic studies *The Global Journalist* and Ramaprasad's studies of Nepalese journalists (2003), Bangladeshi journalists (2006), Tanzanian journalists (2001), and Egyptian journalists (2006). Or the study of Ugandan journalists (Mwesige, 2004), Brazilian journalists (Herscovitz, 2004), Indonesian journalists (Hanitzsch, 2005), and also the recent study of American journalists (67.0%) (D. H. Weaver et al., 2007) all show that the male journalists were in the majority. In age the Sindh journalist is young (40 years old or less). This is similar to the idea of Weaver who having analyzed the journalistic studies of 21 countries found that average age of journalists lies between 30 to 40 years in the dozen places and concluded that journalism is an occupation for young people (D. H. Weaver, 1998bb). Further, Ramaprasad also found that 91 percent of the Egyptian journalists were under 40 years (Ramaprasad & Hamdy, 2006), mean age of the majority of Tanzanian journalists was thirty six years (Ramaprasad, 2003), and the mean age of the surveyed Nepalese journalists was almost 32.30 years (Ramaprasad, 2005). Regarding age Hanitzsch also reports that the typical Indonesian journalist is 36 years old (Hanitzsch, 2005). In this way in Sindh as well

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journalism is a profession for young persons. About monthly income or salary the Sindh journalist was found to be underpaid and unpaid. Therefore, the poor financial condition of the Sindh journalist reflects that the profession of journalism in Sindh is like the situation described by Cole, in which 'Nobody gets rich in the local and regional media, except the owners' (Cole, 2006, p. 82). The poor financial conditions of the Sindh journalist tend to assume that any likely financial corruption that exists among Sindh journalists is indirectly encouraged and accepted by the media organisations or media owners in Sindh, who hitherto are not ready to pay journalists their salaries as recommended in *Wage Board Award* - a committee nominated by the government to fix the standard salary to be paid to the journalists in Pakistan. In education the Sindh journalist is well educated, earning a final degree from University, like the Ugandan journalists, the majority of whom (54.0%) according to Mwesige, were university graduates and supported the idea that journalists should have a university degree (Mwesige, 2004). Likewise in a recent study of US journalists, according to Weaver et al., the majority (89.0%) had a college education (D. H. Weaver et al., 2007).

In regards to work background the Sindh journalist is a news reporter (68.4%); however, in Nepal (31.0%) and Tanzania (46.0%) they were less likely to be so (See Ramaprasad 2003, 2001). The Sindh journalist had work experience of more than five years (68.2%) which seems to be similar to journalists of other countries. For example, the mean number of years of work experience of the majority of journalists in Egypt was 7 years, Bangladesh 12 years, Tanzania 10 years, Nepal 8.2 years, (See Ramaprasad 2006, 2006, 2003, and 2003), and Brazil female 11.3 years and male 15.2 years (Herscovitz 2004) were higher than five years. The Sindh journalist (61.3%) is a print journalist, specifically working for newspapers. Similarly, the majority of the journalists in the US 70.5% (Weaver 2007), Tanzania 77.0%, Nepal 71.0%, Egypt 56.0% (See Ramaprasad 2001, 2005, 2006), Brazil 73.8% (Herscovitz 2004), and Uganda 60.0% (Mwesige 2004) are print journalists. The surveyed Sindh journalist was found to be an employee of private media (94.3%) which is also similar to Tanzania 73.0%, and Nepal 58.0% (See Ramaprasad 2003, 2005) where the majority of the journalists work for private media. However, in Uganda the finding of media ownership differed from Sindh as according to Mwesige only 36.0% of the journalists in Uganda worked for private media (Mwesige, 2004) which is less than Sindh journalists. Journalism is a full time profession for Sindh journalists (77.9%) similar to the proportion in Tanzania of 87.0%, Egypt 74.0%, and Bangladesh *almost all* (See Ramaprasad 2001, 2006, 2006). However, in Nepal, journalism was found to be a full time profession for half of the



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surveyed Nepalese journalists (Ramaprasad 2003) which is less than the figure for Sindh journalists.

The Sindh journalist is overall satisfied (71.4%) with his job, 23.6% of them even 'very satisfied'. So in being 'very satisfied' they were almost equal, proportionately, with their colleagues in various 14 countries and territories, whose on average proportion of being 'very satisfied' was calculated at 25.0% (See Weaver, 1998), and in Indonesia as well where 22.6% were 'very satisfied' with their jobs (See Hanitzsch, 2005). However, in a recent US study the proportion of 'very satisfied' journalists (33.3%) (See Weaver et al., 2002) was higher than the figure for Sindh journalists, and in Uganda the proportion of being 'very satisfied' (6.0%) (See Mwesige, 2004) was less than that for Sindh journalists.

About media roles under the first factor 'information analysis and public advocacy' the highest importance Sindh journalists assigned to the function 'providing accurate information in a timely manner', so the characteristics of accuracy and timeliness in the provision of information were also 'rated as the most important' among seventeen (17) items by Nepalese journalists like all of *The American Journalist studies* (See Ramaprasad & Kelly, 2003). Similarly in the study of Indonesian journalists the item 'getting information to the public quickly' was the most important communication goal (Hanitzsch, 2005); and this function has been termed one of the 'classical' values of a Western understanding of the news media which demands from the journalists a set of characteristics such as neutrality, impartiality and objectivity (Hanitzsch, 2005). The second highest importance Sindh journalists gave to the function 'giving ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs', a public advocacy role (67.6%). However, the 'public advocacy role' of the news media got an importance rating of 48.0% by US journalists and 56.0% by British journalists (See Mwesige, 2004) which is comparatively less than Sindh journalists. Such other coincidences of assigning importance to the items 'getting information out quickly' and 'giving ordinary people a chance to express themselves' as the first and second highest rated media functions respectively was also found in the study of Ugandan journalists (See Mwesige, 2004, p. 84). Moreover among 13 function items the least importance Sindh journalists assigned to 'propagating government policy', and this was similar to Nepalese journalists who also according to Ramaprasad and Kelley assigned lowest importance to the function 'propagating government policy' (2002, p. 305). The typical Sindh journalist was found to be politically non-affiliated (64.6%); similarly the majority of the Nepalese journalists (61.0%) (See Ramaprasad 2005) and all of the surveyed Bangladeshi journalists (See Ramaprasad and Rahman 2006) were politically non-affiliated. In political ideology the

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Sindh journalist (59.8%) is liberal; similarly the highest proportion of US journalists (40.1%) (Weaver et al. 2007) and the majority of Brazilian journalists (62.1%) (Herscovtiz 2004) was also found to be left-leaning in regard of political ideology.

Moreover, the participation or membership of journalists in press organisations is considered one of the indicators of professionalism among them (See Lo 1998, Kirat 1998, Robinson & Saint-Jean 1998), and 71.1% of the surveyed Sindh journalists were members of press clubs in Sindh. This percentage figure of press organisation membership among Sindh journalists was higher than the percentage of press organisation membership in Hong Kong 18% (Chan et al., 1998, p. 41), France 37% (McMane, 1998, p. 199), Brazil 28% (Herscovitz & Cardoso, 1998, p. 424), Algeria 48% (Kirat, 1998, p. 337), Canada 48% female and 40% male (Robinson & Saint-Jean, 1998, p. 369), Taiwan 65% (Lo, 1998, p. 83) and West Germany 56% (Schoenbach et al., 1998, p. 221). In contrast, press organisation membership (71.1%) of Sindh journalists was almost equal to that of journalists in East Germany 69% (Schoenbach et al., 1998, p. 221) and less than that of journalists in Australia, 86% (Henningham 1, 1998, p. 100) and particularly Finland, where all the journalists of print and broadcast media were members of the Union of Journalists in Finland (Heinonen, 1998, p. 173).

For Sindh journalists the first most influential factor which serves as a constraint when they want to pursue journalistic ideals was the 'media organisation's policy'. And the second most influential factor was 'government media laws'. Whereas, the third-ranking factor was 'personal values'. Like Sindh journalists, according to Ramaprasad 'Journalists in the USA (Shoemaker and Reese, 1996), journalists in Tanzania too considered personal values (measured by three items) as having the smallest influence in their reporting ..... Respondents rated organization policy (measured by two items) as the highest influence on their reporting, government position (measured by one item) as second' (See Ramaprasad 2001).

### **8.3 Contribution to Knowledge**

Comparative studies have become necessary to develop generalizable theories and findings, and also to test the interpretations of researchers against cross-cultural differences (Kohan, 1989, cited in Hanitzsch, 2009). Therefore, exploring differences and similarities in journalistic culture has become an interesting sphere in the field of journalism studies, and researchers in this field follow a comparative perspective (Hanitzsch, 2009, p. 413). Hanitzsch further adds that similarities are found in the professional routines, editorial

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procedures, and socialization processes of the journalism or journalistic work of the various countries; and similarly differences also exist because journalists' professional views and practices are influenced by their 'national media system' (Hanitzsch, 2009, p. 413). However, in spite of social and cultural differences, the main argument behind the work of David Weaver *The Global Journalist* is that there is some relationship between the background and ideas of journalists and what they report and how they report.

This study at its widest perspective deals with the study of journalism, and particularly focuses on the sociological portrait of the Sindh journalists, and their attitudes and beliefs. Moreover, some of the other fundamental purposes for this research were to pay scholarly attention to the journalist community of Sindh, and as it were, "put them under the microscope" as media researchers and scholars across the world also closely examine the professional journalists in their own countries. In addition, it was considered that the world journalistic community would also be able to observe and confirm what are the issues and problems of Sindh journalists, and their strengths and weaknesses compared with their counterparts and colleagues across the globe; as on the one hand Mwesige points out that 'very little has been done to compare the people who work in journalism in developing countries..... to their counterparts in developed countries', (Mwesige, 2004, pp. 69-70); on the other 'the impetus coming from new technologies pushes scholars (even) to reconsider the definitions of journalist' (Josephi, 2005, p. 86). Because, 'the future of journalism depends upon the journalists' (Stead, 1997, p. 50), who are one of the most influential groups in any society. As Riddle while classifying journalists said, first, a journalist is an academic when he informs, reforms, is cultured, cultivated, interested in literature and foreign affairs. Second, a journalist is a technician when he is a specialist in finance, sport, racing, fashion, drama, architecture, music, markets, law, medicine, gardening, photography, and motoring. Third, a journalist is a popularist when he is gifted with selecting and understanding what will interest the general public (See Riddell, 1997, pp. 112-113). Therefore, it is necessary to have knowledge of the people who work in journalism particularly in such countries where the democratization process is weak (2004, p. 70). In addition the journalistic surveys are specifically relevant in the current period of globalization, where media and messages flow across borders easily and continuously, and the effects of media policy and practice are also cross-national (See Ramaprad & Rahman 2006, p.148).

In this way in Sindh the development of journalism and the concentration of the journalistic workforce in the most developed or capital cities of any country indicates that the profession or business of journalism is mainly dependent upon and influenced by three

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significant societal institutions: the economy, education, and politics of the country or territory concerned. Moreover, journalism still seems to be a male profession in general; however, this idea of journalism as a male profession becomes more conspicuous in the context of third world, developing and Muslim countries, or in those countries where the literacy rate of females is lower than males. In terms of age the findings support the idea that journalism is a profession for young persons, though the financial conditions of the journalists vary from country to country and, therefore, are complex to generalize. However, the findings apparently make it seem that Sindh journalists are financially more exploited by their media organisations than journalists of other countries, particularly developed ones. Against the backdrop of his poor financial situation, the Sindh journalist is prone to be bribed and ready to earn through unfair means. In education it was found that journalists tend to be well-educated in Sindh and in other countries as well. However, a journalism or media degree is still not required for those who want to become journalists in most countries, either by governments or by the employer, and commonly the people who join the profession are expected to have at least a college or preferably university education in the disciplines of social sciences and arts.

Worldwide, journalists commonly have at least five years of work experience, and the majority are news reporters for private media organisations, rather than newsroom workers of government media organisation. In developing countries in particular journalists are predominantly employees of private print media organisation rather than government broadcast media organisations. Though media and journalism scholars are still engaged in debate over whether journalism is a profession, occupation or craft, it is clear that, for the most part, journalism is typically practiced as a full time job throughout the world.

Additionally despite financial, media freedom and professional autonomy issues, overall journalists are found to be satisfied with their jobs. However, there can be differences between journalists of various countries in the proportions of those who are 'very satisfied' with their jobs. A consensus also seems to be developing among journalists throughout the world about the role of the media on at least one point that 'providing information in a timely manner' or 'getting information to the public quickly' should be the first very important or extremely important function of the news media. About journalists across the globe it can also be assumed that in their political ideology they are more left of centre than right of it. In addition, whenever news people struggle to pursue their journalistic ideals then along with government media laws, the policies of the journalists' employer media organisations also become constraints in their pursuit of journalistic ideals.

### **8.4 A note on the contrast between the quantitative and qualitative findings**

The survey data demonstrated that journalists working in Sindh province, despite suffering financially at the hands of media owners and heedless governments, and often having low job security, were satisfied with their jobs (71.4%), labelled journalism a significant profession (87.7%) and showed commitment not to leave journalism even if other, better employment was made available to them (60.2%). Similarly, despite the majority not being affiliated with any political party (64.4%) most appeared to be politically active and were optimistic about the development of a democratic political system in Pakistan. Most survey participants were registered to vote (94.9%) and most had cast their vote (90.4%), during the most recent (2008) election in Pakistan (82.7%). Ideologically the majority described themselves as either liberal (59.8%) or moderate (34.2%). The majority showed a commitment to professionalism by belonging to district press clubs (71.1%), and made use of the press clubs not only as social clubs but also as newsgathering organisations, where they also shared news information with each other. The majority were regular readers of newspapers (67.0%) and watched television (64.5%) ‘Very frequently’.

Qualitative data were obtained from six districts via focus group discussions. The participants were less representative of the whole population of Sindh journalists compared with 23 districts sampled for the quantitative survey. The majority of the focus group participants were Sindhi language print journalists, for the most part doing news-reporting, and all were ethnically Sindhi. The discussions were based on five open-ended questions designed to accumulate different data from the survey and at a deeper level. The focus group findings contrasted quite sharply with the survey findings, creating a rather grim impression about journalists’ working conditions and suggesting that there was some pessimism over the future of journalism and journalists in Pakistan.

The apparent contradiction between the views expressed in the survey and views expressed in the focus groups can be explained as follows. It should be emphasised that in the discussions focus group participants were more at ease in expressing their sincere views than they did during the survey. This may be because the former, despite the author’s assurances that all data supplied would be anonymized were perceived by participants to be safer places to express their views frankly. The quantitative data showed clearly that Sindh journalists were strongly committed to their work and the value of journalism. The qualitative data showed that the practice of journalism in Sindh is often challenging and difficult.

### 8.5 Limitations of the Study

This study was conducted with a few limitations which were hard to dismantle for the researcher. The first was related to the sampling of the study, as the complete list of the total number of journalists working in both the urban and rural part of Sindh could not be made available. Therefore, as an alternative a *purposive sampling technique* was relied upon, and as a result that situation precluded the random selection of journalists for sampling of the survey. Similarly, for the sampling of focus group discussions the selection of basic sampling units (district press clubs) was made on the criteria of the six largest districts in Sindh both in the context of infrastructural development of the districts and press club membership of district press clubs.

Further, despite having applied all efforts and approach within the limits of research ethics, the researcher could not get a response from the journalists of two district press clubs of Sindh, namely District Tharparkar, where just two respondents filled out the questionnaires, and District Jaccobabad, where no journalist filled out the questionnaire. The main reason for such a response from these two districts was the lack of confidence among potential respondents in these two districts that the information given by them in their questionnaires would remain confidential. One other limitation faced while conducting the focus group discussions was that all participants in focus group discussions were of Sindhi ethnicity, though in survey research the proportion of more than one quarter (29.1) journalists were non-Sindhi - Mohajir/Urdu speaking (18.2), Siraiki (4.2%) and of other various ethnicities (6.7%).

### 8.6 Suggestions for Future Research

Despite having conducted this study about Sindh journalists, it is felt that there are still many variables and a large area remaining which could not be covered in this study. Media role perceptions of journalists which have been examined in this research also need to be looked at in terms of a study which examines the extent to which Sindh journalists have been able to put into practice their own understanding of the role of the media due to limitations imposed by various factors around them like media organisation policy, government media laws, personal values and their political, religious and cultural orientation. In addition, it is also suggested that the concepts of journalists in Sindh about media ethics and the practice of journalistic ethics may be studied in the future. In the context of media and journalism education it is generally observed that the majority of Sindh journalists are educated in other

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than the discipline of journalism and mass communication. Therefore, the views of journalists about prevailing mass communication and journalism education are worth study.

Finally, there is also a dire need of comparative study between journalists and the students of journalism and mass communication at universities of Pakistan regarding their views about many more news media and journalistic variables.

## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX-I Questionnaire in English

#### A SURVY OF JOURNALISTS IN SINDH PROVINCE, PAKISTAN

Dear Respondent,

Please spare a few minutes to fill this questionnaire. There are no correct or incorrect answers. The information you provide will remain confidential. It is important that you represent your opinions truly. Please, read each question carefully and respond as honestly as you can. Thanks for your co-operation.

#### SECTION 1: Current Employment

**Q 1:** Which district are you working in at the moment :( please specify) \_\_\_\_\_.

**Q 2:** How long have you worked as a journalist? **(Tick one)**

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Less than 1 year            | <input type="checkbox"/> Between 1 and up to 2 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Between 2 and up to 3 years | <input type="checkbox"/> Between 3 and up to 4 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Between 4 and up to 5 years | <input type="checkbox"/> More than 5 years           |

**Q 3:** What is your present job title? **(Tick one)**

- |   |                                     |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Editor                         | <input type="checkbox"/> Sub-editor |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Correspondent                  | <input type="checkbox"/> Reporter   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify): _____. |                                     |

**Q 4:** What type of media organization are you mainly working for at the moment? **(Tick one)**

- Daily newspaper ☐ Radio ☐ TV ☐ News agency ☐ News magazine ☐

**Q 5:** What is the ownership status of the media organization you are working for now ? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Private **(Go to A)**  
☐ Government **(Go to B)**

**A:** Do you work in journalism **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Full time? ☐ Part time?

**B:** What is the tenure status of your job? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Probationary ☐ Permanent ☐ Contract

**Q 6:** The principal working language of media organization you work for now is: **(Tick one)**

- ☐ English **(Go to Q.7)**  
☐ Sindhi **(Go to A)**  
☐ Urdu **(Go to A)**  
☐ Other (please specify) : \_\_\_\_\_ **( Go to A)**

**A:** Would you prefer to work in English language newspaper/radio/TV? magazine or news agency? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes **(Go to B)**  
☐ Perhaps **(Go to B)**  
☐ No **(Go to Q.7)**



**B:** Why would you prefer to work in any English language media organization? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ It pays more
  - ☐ It is symbol of status
  - ☐ Both reasons
  - ☐ Do not know
  - ☐ If other reason (please explain)
- 
- 

**Q 7:** What is the name of the media organization you work in now? **(Optional)**

(Specify here) \_\_\_\_\_.

**Q 8:** How satisfied are you with your present job? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Very satisfied
- ☐ Satisfied
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Dissatisfied
- ☐ Very Dissatisfied

**Q 9:** Would you continue in journalism if other, better employment was available? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Not sure

**Q 10:** How important is becoming a journalist to you? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Very Important
- ☐ Important
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Not Important
- ☐ Not very Important

**Q 11:** In your opinion, how secure is your present job? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Very Secure
- ☐ Secure
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Not Secure
- ☐ Not very Secure

## **SECTION 2: Training**

**Q 12:** Have you ever received any formal training in the use of computers? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

**Q 13:** Do you use a computer in journalistic work? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Little bit

**Q 14:** Before joining journalism did you receive any journalistic training? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes **(Go to A)**
- ☐ No **(Go to Q.15)**

**A:** For how long?

- ☐ Less than week
- ☐ One week
- ☐ More than one week
- ☐ A month
- ☐ More than one month

**Q 15:** Have you ever received any journalistic training since becoming a journalist? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes **(Go to A)**  
☐ No **(Go to Q.16)**

**A:** How many times have you received journalistic training?

- ☐ Once      ☐ Twice      ☐ Three times      ☐ More than three time

**Q 16:** Do you think that you still need more practical training? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes **(Go to A)**  
☐ No **(Go to Q.17)**

**A:** In which of the following areas would you prefer to receive training?

- News Reporting  
 -----News Writing  
 -----News Editing  
 -----Media Laws & Ethics  
 -----If other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_.

### **SECTION 3: Your views on news media**

**Q 17:** How often do you use the following mass media for your own news interests?

Please **CIRCLE** the appropriate number for each given media option.

	Very Frequently	Quite often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
<b>a. Radio:</b>	1	2	3	4	5
<b>b. Television:</b>	1	2	3	4	5
<b>c. Newspaper:</b>	1	2	3	4	5
<b>d. Newsmagazine:</b>	1	2	3	4	5

**Q 18:** How free do you think the news media are in Sindh today? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Completely free      ☐ Very free      ☐ Fairly free      ☐ Not very free      ☐ Not free at all

**Q 19:** How much freedom do you have in selecting the stories you work on? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Complete freedom  
☐ A High level of freedom  
☐ Some freedom  
☐ Almost no freedom  
☐ No freedom at all

**Q 20:** How much freedom do you have in deciding which aspects of a story should be emphasized? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Complete freedom  
☐ A High level of freedom  
☐ Some freedom  
☐ Almost no freedom  
☐ No freedom at all

**Q 21:** Which medium has more credibility among the audiences in Sindh? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Print  
☐ Electronic

**Q.22:** In your opinion compared to Sindhi and Urdu media the English language media are:  
**(Tick one)**

- ☐ More credible  
☐ About the same  
☐ Less credible  
☐ Not sure

**Q.23:** In your perception which medium is most widely consumed in Sindh? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Radio                      ☐ Newspaper                      ☐ TV                      ☐ News Magazine

**Q.24:** How much do the following factors influence you personally while reporting and writing or editing news? Please **CIRCLE** the appropriate number for each given option.

	<b>A lot</b>	<b>Some</b>	<b>Little</b>	<b>Very little</b>	<b>None</b>
<b>a.</b> My personal values and opinions	1	2	3	4	5
<b>b.</b> My Political orientation	1	2	3	4	5
<b>c.</b> My Ethnic affiliation	1	2	3	4	5
<b>d.</b> Newspaper/ Channel's policy	1	2	3	4	5
<b>e.</b> Government media laws	1	2	3	4	5

#### **SECTION 4: Politics**

**Q.25:** Do you have an affiliation with any political party? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes **(Go to A)**  
☐ No **(Go to Q.26)**

**A:** What is the nature of your affiliation? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Member  
☐ Supporter  
☐ Other

**Q.26:** Are you registered to vote in elections? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes **(Go to A)**  
☐ No **(Go to Q.27)**

**A:** Have you ever voted in an election? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes **(Go to B)**  
☐ No **(Go to Q.27)**

**B:** Did you vote in the last election? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes                      ☐ No

**Q.27:** What do you consider yourself ideologically? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Liberal  
☐ Moderate  
☐ Conservative  
☐ If other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_.

## SECTION 5: Functions of News Media

**Q.28:** How important are the following media functions to you as a journalist? Please **CIRCLE** the appropriate number for each given option.

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not very Important</b>
<b>a.</b> Portray a positive image of the country.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>b.</b> Portray national leaders in a positive manner.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>c.</b> Support the governments' national development programs.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>d.</b> Propagate government policy.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>e.</b> Provide analysis and interpretation of complex problems.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>f.</b> Discuss national policy while it is still being developed.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>g.</b> Objectively report on government national development programs.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>h.</b> Educate voters about how government operates.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>i.</b> Inform voters about politicians' viewpoints.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>j.</b> Provide entertainment and relaxation.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>k.</b> Provide accurate information in a timely manner.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>l.</b> Investigate claims and statements made by the government.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>m.</b> Give ordinary people a chance to express their views on public affairs.	5	4	3	2	1

## SECTION 6: Press Clubs

**Q 29:** Are you a member of a press club or any other professional journalistic organization?  
(Tick one)

☐ Yes (Go to A)

☐ No (Go to Q.30)

**A:** Please specify the name of press club/journalistic organisation below:

1. \_\_\_\_\_.
2. \_\_\_\_\_.
3. \_\_\_\_\_.
4. \_\_\_\_\_.

**Q 30:** How would you describe the nature of press clubs in Sindh? **(Tick one)**

- |                          |                             |                          |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>    | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Social clubs             | Newsgathering organizations | Both                     |

**Q 31:** Do you share news/information with other journalists you meet at the press club?

- (Tick one)** ☐ ☐ ☐
- Yes No Sometimes

**Q 32:** Do you have a Government Accreditation Card? **(Tick one)**

- ☐ Yes  
☐ No

**Q 33:** Do you think that the Government awards Accreditation Card on merit? **(Tick one)**

- |                          |                          |                          |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Yes                      | No                       | I do not know            |

**Q 34:** Has ever the membership of any journalist been rejected from your press club/journalistic organization? **(Tick one)**

- |                          |                          |                          |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Yes                      | No                       | I do not know            |

## **SECTION 7: About you**

**Q 35:** Gender: **(Tick one)**

- |                          |                          |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Male                     | Female                   |

**Q 36:** Age Group: **(Tick one)**

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Less than 21 years    | <input type="checkbox"/> From 21 till 25 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> From 26 till 30 years | <input type="checkbox"/> From 31 till 35 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> From 36 till 40 years | <input type="checkbox"/> From 41 till 45 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> From 46 till 50 years | <input type="checkbox"/> From 51 till 60 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Above 60 years        |  |

**Q 37:** Mother tongue: **(Tick one)**

- |                                  |  |
|----------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sindhi  | <input type="checkbox"/> Urdu                  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Siraiki | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (specify):_____ |

**Q 38: Religion: (Tick one)**

- |                                       |   |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Islam        | <input type="checkbox"/> Hinduism               |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Christianity | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (specify): _____ |

**Q 39: Monthly earning from your journalism job: (PK Rupees) (Tick one)**

- ☐ Less than 10,000  
☐ Between 10,000 and 15,000  
☐ Between 15,000 and 20,000  
☐ Between 20,000 and 25,000  
☐ Above 25,000

**Q 40: From where did you obtain your (final educational degree)? (Tick one)**

- ☐ School (Go to Q.41)  
☐ College (Go to Q.41)  
☐ University (Go to Q. A)

**A: From which university have you obtained your final degree? : ( Tick one)**

- ☐ University of Sindh, Jamshoro.  
☐ Shah Abdul Latif University Khairpur.  
☐ University of Karachi.  
☐ Sindh Agriculture University Tando Jam.  
☐ Other (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_.

**Q 41: How did you obtain your final formal educational degree? (Tick one)**

- ☐ As a private student  
☐ As a regular student

**Q 42: Why did you become a journalist? (You may write your answer in Sindhi or Urdu)**

-----  
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----

**Q 43: Your Name (Optional):** \_\_\_\_\_

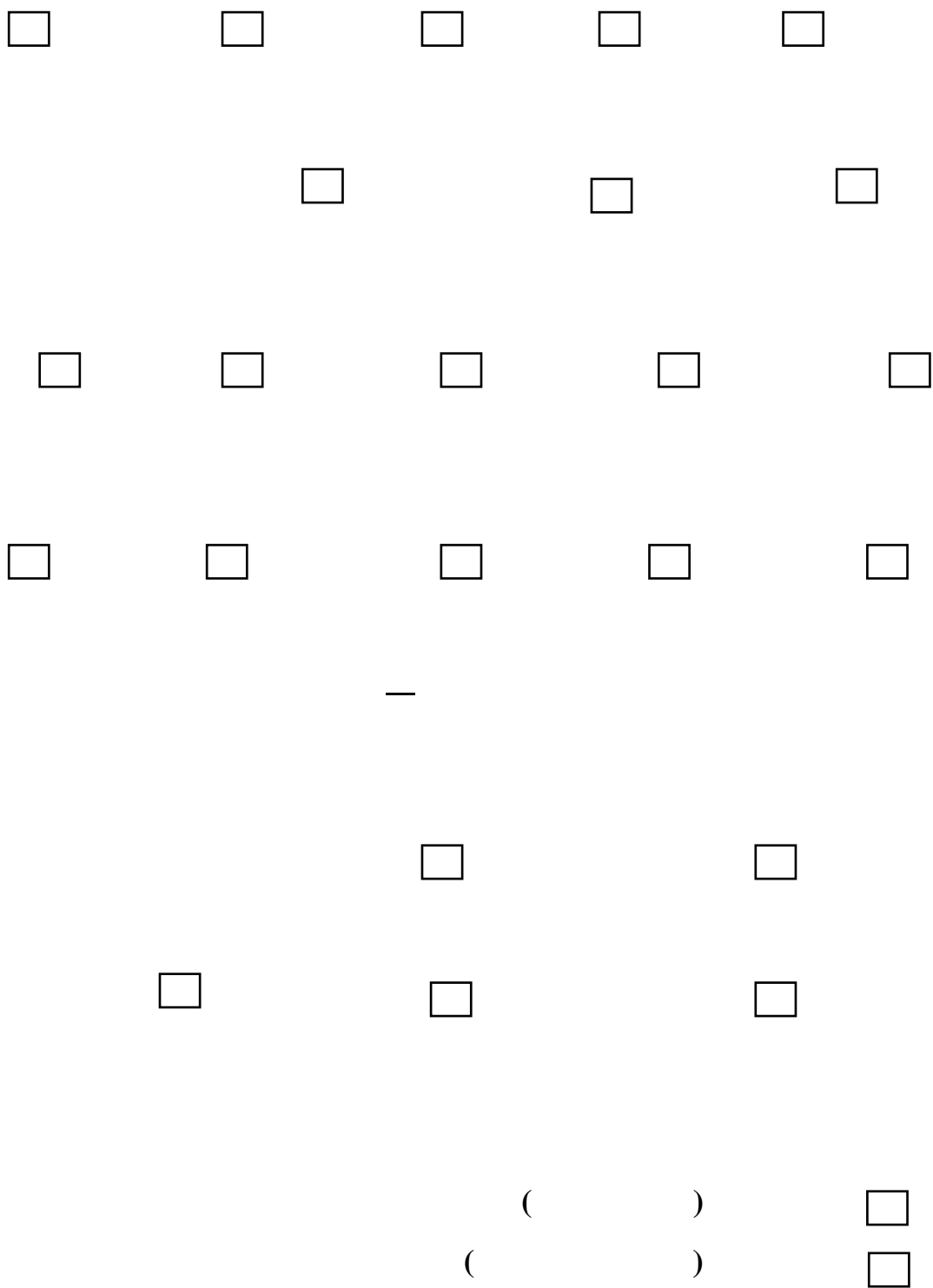
**Contact #:** \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX-2 Questionnaire in Sindhi language

☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐







☐  
☐  
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☐  
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(                    ) ☐  
(                    ) ☐

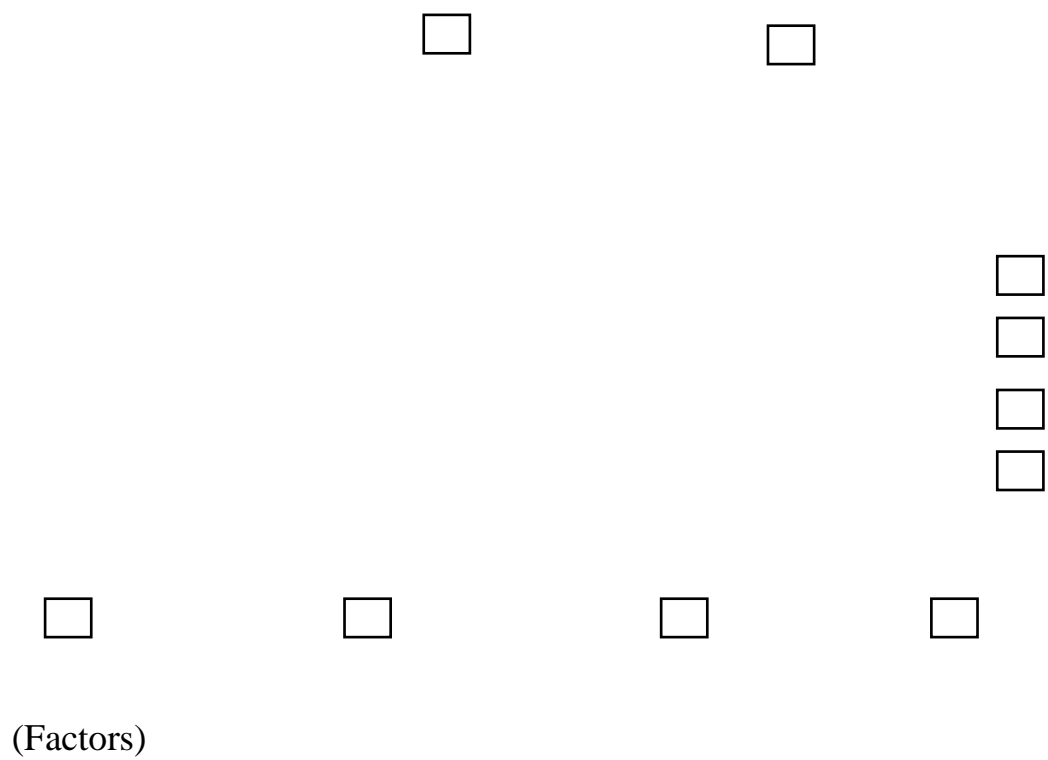
☐                    ☐                    ☐                    ☐

(                    ) ☐  
(                    ) ☐

—

-

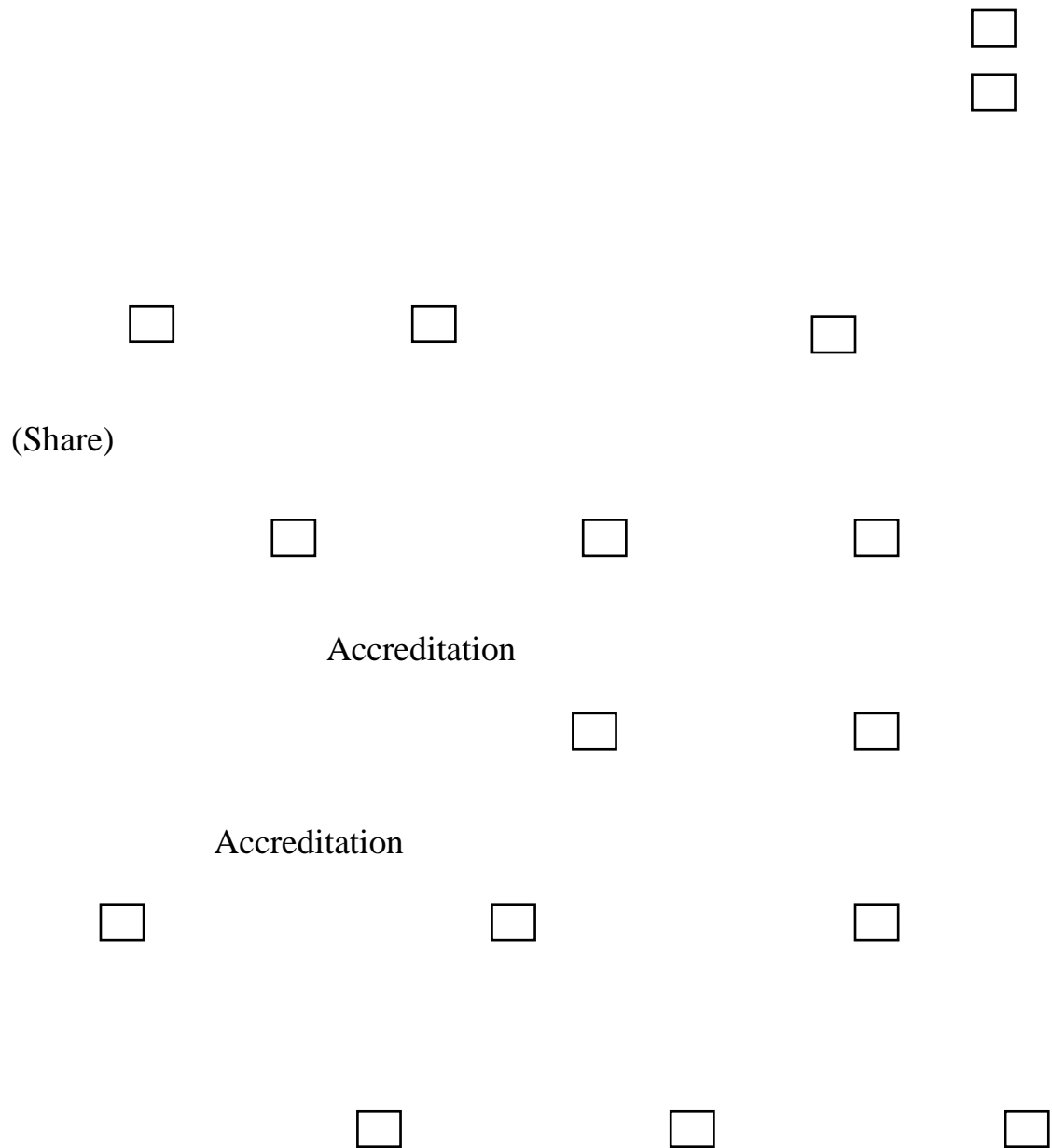




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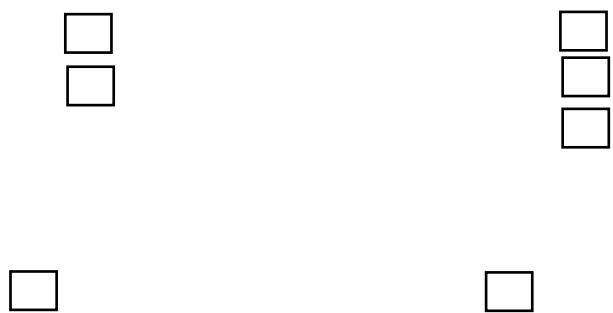


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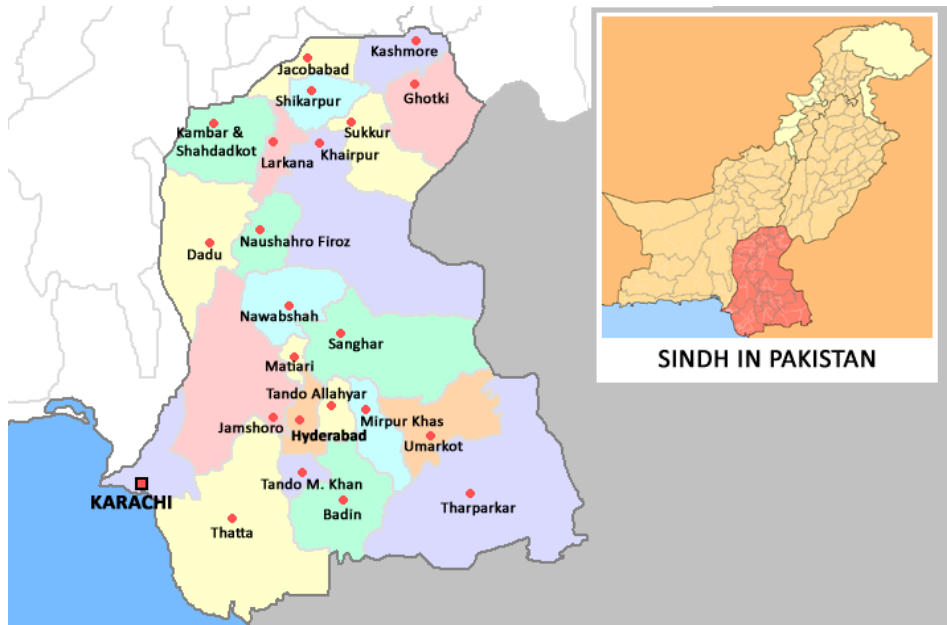








### APPENDIX-3 Map of Sindh Province



Source: Wikipedia.org

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